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CLASSROOM BULLETIN

on

SOCIAL STUDIES

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This Bulletin has been prepared for the use of teachers of Social Studies, offering information and suggestions re textbooks, reference books and procedures.

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"The Classroom Bulletin on Social Studies" is designed to aid students and teachers. In the present issue, for example, the three units of the Grade XI Social Studies course dealt with are intended to act as helpful supplements to classroom discussion of these subects. An exercise on graph reading, a radio log, and information concerning reference material are also included.

It is hoped teachers will make full use of the facilities offered by this Bulletin. They may do so by submitting suggestions for future issues regarding topics or procedures which, in their opinion, should have a place in this publication. Ideally, the Bulletin should function as the clearing-house for all materials and ideas that will serve to make social studies in the high school more meaningful and more vital.

Communications should be addressed to the Social Studies Bulletin, Department of Education, Edmonton.

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Issues of the Classroom Bulletin on Social Studies No. 1 and No. 2 are available in limited quantities. They can be obtained from the General Office of the Department of Education at 10c per copy. These issues contain discussions of the various units of the Grade X course, while the unit on Global Reconstruction from the Grade XII course is to be found in the second Bulletin.

ESSENTIALS OF A SOCIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMME

By W. L. Van Loan and Mildred Williams
Vanport City Public Schools

Reprinted from the "Curriculum Journal", May, 1943

The purpose of a social education programme is the development of the characteristics of behaviour essential for effective citizenship in a democracy. In order to determine the minimum essentials of such a programme it is nesessary to analyze our ideal of democracy to determine what values are paramount, to consider what types of behaviour are necessary to achieve these values, and what kind of education will develop these types of behaviour.

Foremost among democratic values are respect for the individual, faith in the intelligence of the common man to solve social problems, belief in the efficacy of co-operative action, and the right of all to equal opportunity in the social, economic, and political aspects of life. The only way in which these values can be achieved is through the creative work of individuals. Individuals must behave in certain ways in order to bring about desired changes in our culture. The objective of social education is to develop the types of behaviour that will bring about these changes.

The task of social education is to help each pupil get a clear insight into our evolving culture, understand contemporary life, build a framework of democratic values, and develop his individual potentialities to the fullest. Minimum essentials of a social education programme include those experiences which are needed to accomplish this task.

History and literature provide great resources for developing an understanding of contemporary life and of our evolving culture; so history and literature are minimum essentials of a social education programme. From the whole field of history and literature careful selection of what is to be taught must be made. This selection should be based on both the maturity of the pupil and the contribution a certain selection of literature or a period of history makes toward an understanding of contemporary life or our evolving culture. Current literature and current events have an important contribution to make and should be included among minimum essentials.

Much of the social education programme must be devoted to the development of the basic skills essential for effective citizenship in a democracy. Reading skills should be developed to the greatest possible extent for each individual pupil. In addition to help in developing skill in reading, each pupil needs guidance in the selection of reading material in order that he may read widely in many different areas. In this radio age, skill in listening is essential. The social education programme can develop ability to listen by providing listening activities and by teaching pupils how to listen and some devices, such as note-taking and discussion, for remembering what is heard. Much information is presented to us in graphic form —charts, graphs, tables, maps, and pictures of various types. Skill in interpreting these types of data is essential for effective citizen-

ship and activities which will develop such skill are an essential part of a social education programme.

An effective citizen needs to express his ideas clearly in both written and oral form. Drill in the fundamentals of written and oral expression is a basic part of a social education programme. Pupils must be able to write legibly, spell common words correctly, punctuate and capitalize according to accepted standards, and know the fundamentals of grammar necessary for correct usage. A social education class must provide not only the necessary instruction and drill in the fundamentals of written and oral expression, but also unlimited opportunity for practice in connection with subjects which are of vital interest to pupils and about which they have ideas to express.

Skill in reading, listening, and interpreting data by themselves do not necessarily make for intelligent, effective citizenship. Critical thinking and the drawing of sound generalizations from valid data are also essential. These are skills which can be developed by intelligent direction and practice. The study of controversial issues and the inclusion of conflicting points of view in reading materials, accompanied by an analysis of the source of such materials and their probable degree of reliability are excellent means of developing critical thinking. An analysis of the facts upon which generalizations are based helps pupils to distinguish between valid and invalid data and to understand the difference between sound and fallacious generalizations. The use of the problems approach as a teaching technique places primary emphasis upon the development of critical thinking and the ability to evaluate data and draw sound generalizations.

In order to make satisfactory personal adjustments boys and girls need to develop more effective relationships in the home with fellow students and with adults outside of the home. They need to develop a wide variety of interests, an understanding of themselves, and competence in social participation. So among the minimum essentials of social education are content which will develop an understanding of family life and the problems of family relationships with fellow students, flexibility that will allow for experiences in many types of activities, learning situations that stimulate the developments of interests, and classroom practices which give pupils an opportunity to plan and work together.

The ability to be economically efficient depends upon many factors. Among these are assurance of adequacy in economic achievement, a wise vocational choice and preparation for that vocation, ability to select goods and services wisely, and ability to participate effectively in the solution of economic problems. Social education classes can develop assurance of economic adequacy by providing opportunities for pupils to participate in community affairs, plan activities and carry them out co-operatively, contribute to the solution of community problems, and have actual work experiences either in the school or community. Social education should provide occupational guidance that will make pupils aware of the occupational opportunities in their community, their own interests, abilities, and potentialities, and enable them to select

vocational areas in which they can best use their abilities. At the same time it is the duty of a social education programme to develop mastery of the essential general skills of reading, writing, speaking, and the use of numbers, and to give pupils an understanding of the general patterns of economic life.

Consumer education is an essential part of social education. Pupils need an understanding of production and distribution, of how to balance expenditures with income, of how to check the quality of merchandise, of how to detect false claims in advertising, and of how to use goods wisely. In order to participate effectively in the solution of economic problems, pupils need to know how our present economy has developed and understand labour organizations and their place in economic life as well as to be sensitive to economic problems and desire to help solve them. The development of these understandings and attitudes is the task of social education.

The major objective of social education is the development of a never-wavering belief in democracy and of those attitudes which are essential for the preservation and development of democratic life. An understanding of our heritage of freedom is fundamental. Social education must present the story of man's life struggle for democracy in the most stirring, inspiring way possible. It must go beyond this and develop attitudes essential for the achievement of democratic values. Basic among these is social sensitivity, which enables those who possess it to enter sympathetically into the lives of others, make the problems of others theirs, and consider all problems and plans for action upon the basis of the human values involved. Other attitudes which must be developed to insure democratic group living are co-operativeness, tolerance, respect for basic civil liberties, and respect for leadership and authority. The development of these attitudes is probably more dependent upon teaching techniques than upon content. Carefully selected motion pictures, field trips, participation in community life, study and discussion of current problems, a democratic classroom atmosphere and organization, and participation in student government are teaching devices which do much toward developing democratic values.

The minimum essentials of a social education programme are many. Stated briefly they include everything necessary to meet the needs of boys and girls as they grow into effective citizens in our democracy. In spite of this great breadth, what is included in a social education programme cannot be left to chance. The whole programme must be planned with these essentials in mind and content and procedure organized so that all are included.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT (Unit VI)

Government by Discussion.

Cynics sneer at the Canadian House of Commons. They call it a "talking shop", a clumsy and ponderous instrument by which public opinion ultimately is transformed into administrative acts and laws. For hours each day men harangue each other in long, monotonous speeches in favour of the causes in which they believe. Spectators find the proceedings boring. There is not the clash of personalities nor the fiery conflict of opinion one might expect in the highest arena of public affairs. Instead, hours and days and months are consumed in debate which, during the greater part of the time, is dull and commonplace.

Yet the House of Commons represents one of the finest achievements of civilized man. Here individuals gather from every part of the country and from every element in the population. They represent a wide variation of political and economic thought. Most of them are filled with the intense conviction that the domestic and foreign policies which they uphold are essential to the country's welfare. Within the House, each man is permitted to put forward his point of view and to urge its acceptance with all the power at his command. His statement may be facile and vigorous; it may, on the other hand, be fumbling and inept. Whatever his beliefs or his speaking style, an elaborate system of conventions and rules will guarantee him a hearing by his peers, and he will be assured thoughtful consideration of his convictions.

This government by discussion is one of the rare arts of the world, achieved over any great length of time in very few countries. It demands tolerance of a high order; it depends upon a background of steady political growth. In one afternoon the member of parliament may be called up to listen to the lengthy discussion of a viewpoint which he abhors. It may be that he will see some cherished legislation meet defeat. Nevertheless, he will accept these unpalatable events calmly, knowing that they are an essential part of parliamentary life. No matter how vital is the issue to the country's welfare, the decision will always be reached through discussion and never through violence. The House of Commons in England has, over a period of two and a half centuries, been the political heart of a nation which has altered radically in its entire approach to the question of the citizen and his relation to the state. Yet these revolutionary changes have been brought about by debate and discussion alone. Force has played no part. The record in Canada, though not as long, is not less impressive.

How has this elaborate system for recording and acting upon the decisions of the average citizens been achieved? This short sketch is intended to describe the outstanding features of the English constitution and the various constitutions based upon that excellent model. For the gradual, slow evolution of the English constitution records the story of man's progress toward a parliamentary system by which the entire population participates in its own government through the peaceful, orderly process of discussion.

King vs. Parliament.

Historically, this account should begin perhaps a thousand years ago with a description of the Saxon council of wise men who surrounded and gave counsel to the king. Then each successive gain during the ensuing centuries could be carefully enumerated. For the purposes of this brief analysis, however, we shall omit many hundreds of years. A few fundamental points deserve statement. First, the king in England, unlike his fellow monarchs throughout Europe, early felt the curb on his power exerted by wary and formidable subjects. Cut off by the English Channel from the seething strife which periodically blanketed the continent, Englishmen did not feel the urgent need of a powerful warrior king. For them there was not the alternative of tyranny or subjugation under a foreign power. Gradually the independence of the people took form in two institutions, the Lords and the Commons, which, as time went on, were to deprive the monarch one by one of his legislative and executive powers. Only once was violence necessary to establish the point that the people, and not the king, were to be considered the final authority in the determination of the people's destiny. It came in the seventeenth century, a period marked by warfare and bloodshed. The crucial question involved was responsible government.

The Stuart monarchs were blind to the sharp change which had occurred in English public opinion since the pre-eminence of the Tudors. When Henry VII came to the throne in 1485 the country was weary from years of civil war and anarchy. What the people wanted most was a firm hand to quell the turbulent nobles who had kept England in constant ferment for decades. For peace and order they were willing to sacrifice the privileges and rights which they had exacted from weak kings like John. The Tudors were sufficiently astute to recognize this attitude. Hence, while they preserved the outer trappings of government by discussion, duly calling sessions of Parliament and ostensibly hearkening to the voice of the people, actually they ruled almost arbitrarily. But autocracy was clothed with shrewdness and tact, and their subjects accepted the domination of their sovereigns with little question. It was only during the latter years of Elizabeth's reign that the mood of Parliament changed. By this time England had had a century of Tudor rule, a century of tranquility and discipline. In this period the country had gone forward socially and economically; a competent group of men had been educated in the ways of government through service in their own local districts. England was now a strong nation which had enjoyed to the full the fruits of peace. She was in a position to challenge even the might of Spain. Consequently, Elizabeth was obliged to tread warily in those final years of the Tudor dynasty. When she distributed valuable monopolies to her favourites without reference to the will of Parliament, men who had begun to chafe at autocracy protested—and won their way. On her death, Parliament was a vastly different institution from what it had been on Henry VII's accession.

James Stuart held the conventional opinions of a continental despot. In seventeenth century France he would have completed a

successful reign. But the Divine Right Theory which he accepted without question was by now intolerable to an important section of English opinion. They suffered his arrogant parade of his own powers, biding their time. The open conflict between parliament and King was to come after Charles I ascended the throne.

It should be noted carefully that the clash found Parliament opposed to the king rather than the people of England arraigned against their monarch. For Parliament and the people were not one and the same. The House of Lords represented only those in the highest ranks of the nobility and clergy; the House of Commons consisted of members whom we would consider today as representatives of the upper middle class. Over two centuries were to elapse before the Commons was to draw its delegates from every segment of the population, and before the House of Commons could be regarded as synonymous with the English people.

The Petition of Right.

Near the beginning of the long struggle with Charles, Parliament reaffirmed, in the historic Petition of Right, the rights of citizens gained from the king. These included assurance against arbitrary imprisonment, arbitrary taxation, quartering of soldiery upon the people in time of peace, and forced loans. Together they may be regarded as the foundation stones of English freedom and as a vital part of the constitution. But Parliament was beset with further difficulties. One of the most serious of these was the power which the king gave to various of his favourites like Buckingham, Laud, and Wentworth. These men, enjoying royal confidence, administered the nations affairs in a manner which provoked the animosity of Parliament. But protests were in vain since Charles insisted that they were fulfilling the will of their king and that their actions were consequently unassailable. The members, on the other hand, contended that the king's ministers were responsible to Parliament for their deeds and were to be dismissed just as soon as their actions were contrary to the wishes of the representatives.

The situation grew increasingly tense. Charles could not accept the theories of the members without forfeiting all claim to the Divine Right of kingship. Parliament, on the other hand, would not bow to autocracy. Parliament had not reached the point where such an issue could be decided by discussion alone; perhaps, too, the fundamental question of the superiority of king or Parliament could not be solved by peaceful means. In any event, England was torn by civil war over the place of the monarch in national life.

Bloodshed was no solution. Cromwell succeeded Charles as head of the government, and during his regime as Lord Protector sought to make parliamentary institutions responsive to his will and ideas. But Cromwell never considered making himself responsible to Parliament for his actions. Not surprisingly, England was prepared to welcome back the monarchy after only ten years of the Protectorate. But Charles II was quite unlike his father. He had seen the power of an aroused Parliament, and he was determined not to risk its fury. The principles enunciated in the Petition

of Right were never questioned. Whatever may have been his personal beliefs concerning the Divine Right or religion, he kept them carefully guarded from the alert members of the Commons. His brother James II, who succeeded him, was as outspoken as Charles was cautious. Soon England was facing a situation reminiscent of that which had preceded the Civil War. James was flaunting his powers as a divinely appointed monarch; he was challenging the rights of Parliament and questioning its chosen religion. Once again violence might have been necessary to resolve the issue, except that James had so thoroughly alienated every possible supporter and sympathizer that he found himself literally alone and obliged to seek refuge in a foreign country.

Victory for Parliament.

James had been ousted by a foreigner, William of Orange, who had come on the invitation of Parliament to rule England. The event is one of the most important in the long history of the fight for political freedom. The Declaration of Rights which followed the acceptance of William and Mary as joint sovereigns was in the great tradition of the Magna Carta and the Petition of Right. Once again the principles of a free parliament were reviewed and reaffirmed; once again the supremacy of Parliament over the king was asserted. But this time there was a significant difference. William occupied the throne not by hereditary right but by invitation. What Parliament had given could just as easily be taken away. This was a real victory.

Other significant achievements marked the last years of the seventeenth century. Real political parties made their first appearance during the reign of Charles II. England was split over the choice of his successor. Those who favoured his son, the Duke of Monmouth, earned the derogatory title of "Whigs" from their opponents, while the supporters of James II were derisively called "Tories". Ultimately, these names were to become the proud emblems of party affiliation. These parties served to clarify the great issues of political debate. They provided the platforms for action now that the monarch was being progressively deprived of the functions of legislation and administration.

William sought the advice and help of ministers for the complex task of presiding over a foreign country. He wished to assure his subjects of his impartiality by keeping the leading members of both the Whigs and Tories among his ministers. But it soon became obvious that this was a clumsy and impractical procedure, with the parties struggling against, instead of working with each other. Then someone suggested he select all his advisors from the Whigs who commanded a majority at the time in the Commons. By this means, so it was urged, the ministers would have the support of the majority for their proposed legislation. William agreed, and later, when the Tories gained ascendancy in the Commons, replaced his Cabinet with leading Tories. Thus was established the basic principle not only of the Cabinet, but of the responsibility of the Cabinet to the majority in Parliament. The Cabinet or executive would continue in power only so long as it enjoyed the support of the majority of the country's delegates.

Other important steps forward were recorded during these eventful years. The judges who had so shamefully yielded under the pressure exerted by Charles I were now made independent of the king, guaranteeing the integrity of their decisions. Then Parliament passed a triennial bill requiring that a new parliament be elected every three years to guarantee that never in the future would a monarch rule without Parliament as Charles had done for eleven years. Further, to ensure the convening of Parliament each year a simple device was adopted, namely, that money for Government expenses be granted only for a year at a time.

By the end of the seventeenth century, then, the salient features of the English constitution had been established. As is characteristic of the constitution, some of the most important gains had not even been written down; they had simply been noted as precedents or conventions. But by 1700 the following features had been recognized: English political opinion was divided by parties into two great sections roughly equivalent to the Right and Left of our day. The institution of the Cabinet as an executive body, duly responsible to the Commons and thus indirectly to the country, had been accepted. In addition, the personal freedoms enunciated in the Petition and Declaration of Rights were now an integral part of English life. Certainly much had been accomplished since James I arrogantly set forth the pretensions of a Divine Right monarch.

For the next 150 years the country was to find itself in political doldrums. After the restless energy and defiant vigour of the Stuart Period, England languished until 1832 with few impressive constitutional gains to her credit. True, the office of Prime Minister was introduced to substitute for a king who did not know the English language, and ultimately the position became a keystone of the parliamentary system. Again, John Wilkes reaffirmed the responsibility of Parliament to the country by winning the battle to keep all discussion in the House public. But aside from these points and the increasing understanding of the role of the Cabinet, England was substantially the same in 1832 as she was in 1688. The rich and powerful families of the country dominated not only the Lords but the Commons as well. Votes were for sale to the highest bidder; corruption entered ever part of public life, from the lowest to the highest. "Every man," said Walpole cynically, "has his price". Representation was a mockery with the result that though Parliament ruled, the people as a whole were denied any participation in their government.

Political Democracy.

The period from 1832 to 1928 finally saw the complete extension of the franchise. Once again the issue was as crucial as in the 1640's. Then the power had been seized from the king by Parliament, and so great a gulf had been created in public opinion that violence had proved inevitable. In the years after 1832 the people of England made a determined attempt to wrest control of the Commons from the landed gentry. The movement was opposed with all the vigour the privileged classes could muster, and for a time Great Britain lay in the shadow of civil war. Violence was prevented only by the innate tolerance of British public institutions.

Gradually the vast masses were extended the franchise; Stanley Baldwin completed the process, and, theoretically at least, the country became in truth a political democracy.

Today (discounting emergency war regulations) the Englishman enjoys entire personal freedom. He has the right to think, speak, write or go as he chooses. So long as he does no violence to the person or property of his neighbour, his conduct is in no way limited. It is an immense achievement.

Canada.

There are interesting parallels between what occurred in Great Britain in the seventeenth century and what happened in Canada two hundred years later. As was to be expected, Canada's struggle for self-government followed closely in its main outlines upon the conflict in the Mother Country. First, it should be borne in mind that French Canada, up until its conquest in 1763, had known only autocracy. There was no tradition of democracy in the country simply because that form of government was completely foreign to seignior and habitant alike. It must be remembered, too, that the British taking over the control of the country in 1763, were at the time under the rule of George III who was determined to restore to the monarchy many of the powers which had been lost. The institutions of government set up in Canada leaned heavily on the side of established privilege and aristocratic domination. Control of all fundamental external affairs such as trade and defence was vested in the supreme authority of the British Parliament. Besides, the actual administration of the country stemmed from London which sent governors who were responsible to the Colonial Office rather than to their Canadian subjects. Most of these governors came from England's leading families. They believed that an aristocracy such as was virtually ruling England at the time offered the best form of government to the colony. Hence, Canada during its early years took on many of the characteristics of the Mother Country. There was, for example, a determined effort to establish a state church, similar to the Church of England. Similarly, the important executives gained much support in their attempt to set up educational institutions resembling Eton, Harrow and other schools which catered to Britain's élite.

Counteracting these tendencies were definite democratic achievements. For one thing, the colonies enjoyed the same basic rights which had been won after so gruelling a struggle in the Mother Country, namely, freedom of speech, trial by jury and assurance against arbitrary imprisonment. Besides, the vital, independent spirit growing up in the Thirteen Colonies profoundly influenced Canadian life. So it was that as early as 1758 Nova Scotians had demanded and won a legislative assembly. With the influx of United Empire Loyalists this spirit of independence was to grow even more intense.

Struggle for Responsible Government.

Nevertheless, Canada, despite the youth and enterprise of her people, lagged behind Britain in one most important respect. The great battle won by Parliament against Charles I and confirmed

with the flight of James II was still to be fought in this country. The Bill of Rights made it abundantly clear that the monarch was subordinate to the Lords and Commons, but in Canada the reverse situation held true. Here the governor or representative of the Crown aided by a small appointed executive council completely dominated the assembly. Instead of being the strongest part of the government, the legislative assembly was the weakest, entrusted only with passing the laws or voting the taxes introduced by the governor. In other words, the final control of policy lay with the governor and a coterie of friends; the general populace represented in the assembly could offer its criticism and little more.

As time went on the resentment against this situation grew increasingly sharp and bitter. Many of those who were in the forefront among the reformers were not clear as to the real objective of their agitation. They did know that the choicest offices in politics, banking, and education were open only to the favoured few who constituted the Family Compact. It was obvious, too, that the general welfare of the country was sadly neglected when the laws were made, carried through, and enforced by a small minority which considered itself the aristocracy of the country. But the part which could be played by responsible government in correcting this deplorable condition was understood by very few.

Joseph Howe.

The first successful breach of the Compact's strongly entrenched position came in Nova Scotia. Led by a newspaperman, Joseph Howe, who saw clearly that the fundamental weakness of the political structure lay in the irresponsibility of the ministers, the movement for reform won a decisive victory. In 1837 a despatch from the Colonial Secretary ordered that the control of the Family Compact over the executive council be reduced. When, shortly after, members of the assembly were appointed to the executive council, it became obvious that the power of the Compact in Nova Scotia had begun to disintegrate. In the same year similar gains were registered in New Brunswick, indicating that the people were moving on toward the concept of responsible government. But the actual acceptance of the principle was not to come for some time. There was, for one thing, a strong tie between the Maritimes and the Mother Country, so that even staunch reformers hesitated to diminish the authority of the governor. It was one thing to demand the abolition of unfair privilege; it was quite another to insist upon a ministry responsible to the electorate and free from the control of the Crown's representative.

In Upper and Lower Canada, as in England two centuries previously, violence was necessary to break the deadlock. As early as 1818 Robert Gourlay was stirring up discontent against the privileged class. His fiery, intemperate speeches and writings aroused bitter antagonism among his opponents who used every means at their disposal to silence him. They were successful, but the frustration of the people expressed itself in open discontent, most of it centering around the Clergy Reserves.

This institution was obviously unsuited to a new and pioneering land. It provided that one-seventh of the land be set aside for

the support of a protestant clergy. When the Compact interpreted this as meaning the Anglican Church only, other denominations, and particularly the Methodists, protested vigorously. One more grievance had been added to a long list which included, among those not already mentioned, the Compact's possession of much of the best land in the country as well as its negligence in building roads or in developing these favoured lands.

Mackenzie and Papineau.

The attack against the Compact reached its climax in the newspaper campaign conducted by William Lyon Mackenzie. Words were spared on neither side, while attempts were made to intimidate Mackenzie by violence. Unfortunately, the full strength of the reformers was dissipated in factionalism. Besides, many distrusted the samewhat erratic qualities of their leader. Still it was apparent there would be no yielding on either side, and the appointment of Sir Francis Bond Head, a notoriously short-sighted governor, precipitated open warfare in Upper Canada.

The course of events in Lower Canada was almost identical. Here the resentment of the people was directed against the Chateau Clique, the equivalent of the Family Compact, for reasons similar to those which were causing unrest in the sister province. There was one additional source of conflict. The majority of the assembly members were French-Canadian, while the governor and the executive council were English. The racial difference added fuel to a discussion which was already extremely bitter. Joseph Papineau, leader of the reformers, opened actual hostilities in November of 1837. Mackenzie followed him shortly after.

Little need be said about the actual Rebellion. Poor organization, insufficient troops and lack of material spelled the doom of the movement within a few months. But the flight of the leaders did not end matters. The fact that Canada had seen civil war deeply shocked British opinion. The British Government was determined to investigate the matter thoroughly and to recommend definite constitutional changes.

Durham's Report.

Its emissary was Lord Durham whose aristocratic blood was countered by liberal tendencies so strong he was nicknamed "Radical Jack". Despite failing health, he undertook an assignment which he knew would seriously tax his strength. For five months he journeyed throughout the Canadas, carefully studying the complicated problems of the time. He gathered a vast amount of material concerning the country and reached some very accurate conclusions before being recalled to England. Political opponents took advantage of a slight overstepping of his constitutional powers to demand his return.

Back in England he completed his monumental report within the short time of two months. It was to be one of the principal documents in Canadian constitutional progress. Acting upon the suggestion of Robert Baldwin who had first advocated responsible government for Upper Canada, Durham incorporated this proposal into his conclusions. To many this reform was not only unorthodox

but openly disloyal. How, they asked, could the governor subordinate himself completely to the will of the executive council and the assembly when the Crown might be insisting upon a policy at variance with the wishes of the councillors? To many a conscientious citizen such a proposal was simply the first step in splitting asunder the ties which bound each of the colonies so securely to the Mother Country. "Responsible government," Haliburton of Nova Scotia said peremptorily, "is responsible nonsense." His opinion was echoed throughout the country, and even Durham's insistence that greater freedom would link the colonies still more closely to Britain, or that the divided loyalty of the governor to Crown and council could be settled by carefully limiting the powers of the executive to domestic matters, offered little reassurance. The Family Compact renewed its attack, stressed the idea that Durham's proposal was equivalent to dissolving the Empire, and won the support of the great majority who recoiled from violence and any suggestion of independence.

The Act of Union of 1840 implemented many of Durham's suggestions. On the question of responsible government it said nothing. Even after years of sharp debate climaxed by rebellion, most people were still not clear as to its meaning. In Nova Scotia, for example, when the executive council included members of the reformers from the assembly as well as the Family Compact element, many concluded this was responsible government. But the experience of William III in this respect was repeated. When Howe insisted that the executive functions could be carried out smoothly and harmoniously only by a group in the council representing the majority in the assembly and indirectly the majority of the people, he was denounced as a revolutionary. The same controversy dominated public affairs in the Canadas. What responsible government actually meant was the subject of a fierce debate in the first joint legislature following the Act of Union. Some progress was made with men like the new governor, Sir Charles Bagot, who realized that the Cabinet must be composed of the majority party. But every step forward was met with bitter opposition and resentment. Bagot's successor, for example, was instructed to repudiate this action, and himself entered into the election campaign of 1844 to ensure the defeat of those advocating Cabinet government.

The end of the struggle came peacefully in Nova Scotia. Lord Grey, the new British Colonial Secretary, forwarded a dispatch to the governor of Nova Scotia instructing him to accept the control of whichever party held a majority in the elected assembly. When the governor complied, the victory had been won.

It was quite a different story in Canada. Here the Cabinet, led by Baldwin and La Fontaine and representing the Reform element in the Assembly, introduced among some two hundred other measures a Bill which precipitated another wave of violence and almost cost the life of the governor, Lord Elgin. The legislature passed by a large majority the Rebellion Losses Bill, compensating citizens, some of them French, in Lower Canada, for losses incurred at the hands of the loyal party during the rebellion a decade earlier. Opponents raised the cry that this was simply voting reward for

rebellion. They sent their insistent appeals for intervention to the British Colonial Office.

Achievement of Responsible Government in the Colonies.

The final decision was left to Lord Elgin, Durham's son-in-law. For him a constitutional principle was at stake. It was not a question as to whether he approved or disapproved of the legislation, or whether rebels might be compensated for the losses incurred by a rebellion. Rather, it struck deeper. The people, through their representatives and their executive, had made known their will. By a large majority they had approved the Bill. The minority might refer to him contemptuously as a "figure-head" for his refusal to oppose the people's decision; nevertheless, for him the path of duty seemed clear. So it was that on April 25, 1849, Elgin signed the Rebellion Losses Bill. Die-hards pelted him with rotten eggs and stones as he emerged from Parliament. As the day wore on, the hostility of the defeated minority steadily mounted. That night a mob rushed into the Parliament Building, drove out the members and completely destroyed the buildings by fire. Five days later Elgin narrowly escaped death when a barrage of stones hit the frail walls of his carriage. But throughout the rising mob hysteria he maintained his position calmly and steadfastly. By the end of the year responsible government was an accepted principle in the country.

Fortunately, the long and painful strife which was necessary to establish the ascendancy of the people's representatives in Canada was largely avoided in the other dominions. Almost sixty years elapsed between the Constitutional Act of 1791, which granted representative government to Canada, and the Rebellion Losses Bill of 1849. In Australia, on the other hand, representation which had been secured in 1842 was succeeded only thirteen years later by full self-government. New Zealand was allowed responsible government after a much shorter interval. The Act of 1852 gave her a representative form. By 1856 an agreement had been reached whereby New Zealand was granted her autonomy. The governor was to act on behalf of the king, guided by the people's representatives in local affairs, but he was to be free to act on his own responsibility in imperial matters. Other sections of the Empire followed in the wake of these countries upon demonstrating their maturity. The granting of Cabinet Government to the Cape of Good Hope in 1869 and finally to the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan in 1905 was indicative of this trend.

Confederation.

A new era was opening for Canada in the 1850's. The individual colonies began to feel themselves part of a larger unity. They saw their ultimate destiny not as isolated provinces or colonies, but as members of a great country, "extending from sea to sea." What prompted this sentiment was not purely idealism or the enlarged horizons of a maturing people. Poor economic conditions obliged Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick to consider the possibilities of a maritime union. Even more urgent causes prodded Canada. The combined French-English

colony saw itself menaced by the alarming growth of the military power of the Northern States. With the outbreak of the American Civil War this threat assumed serious proportions, particularly when a storm of resentment against all things British was aroused in the Northern States by a series of unfortunate incidents which almost involved the Mother Country in war with the North. Within the colony of Canada political life was at a standstill, brought to a halt by the issue of Representation by Population. Neither side could gain a working majority to enforce its views on the matter. The question was whether the French-Canadians in the assembly would be outnumbered by the growing population in Upper Canada, or be guaranteed the numerical majority they had secured by the Act of Union. Clearly, the provisions of the Act had been outdated; the colony's leaders were convinced of the necessity of moving towards a larger unity to resolve the deadlock. Confederation seemed the answer.

The plan was launched at the Charlottetown Conference of 1864 in the full tide of a great national movement. Within two years Confederation had almost been wrecked by the emergence of strong isolationist tendencies in the various legislatures. And then a band of armed marauders, the Fenians, invaded Canadian soil from the south and for a time threatened Canada's sovereignty. The invasion was accompanied by belligerent anti-British editorials in several American newspapers. Canadians suddenly realized the necessity for unity. A small number of undisciplined raiders had proved more persuasive than months of debate. By March, 1867, the British North America Act had been passed by the British Parliament; Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec and Ontario had been linked together in a federal union. The other provinces were to follow as the Dominion of Canada took definite form.

It was the intention of the Fathers of Confederation to make the new federal system strongest where the strain would be greatest—at the centre. Hence the national government was granted such important powers as the appointment of settlers and lieutenant governors as well as the right to disallow provincial laws. The rights of the provincial government were duly set forth, while all functions not handed to the provinces were to be under the jurisdiction of the Federal government.

As time has gone on, the necessity for re-defining these spheres of control has become ever more pressing. No matter how far-seeing the men of 1867 were, they could not possibly predict the era of the radio, aeroplane and automobile. Consequently, there have been numerous sharp differences between the provinces and the Dominion over the jurisdiction of certain matters. Several of these have been referred to the Privy Council which, in almost all cases, has favoured the provinces, destroying the balance set up in 1867. The Rowell-Sirois Report was an attempt to plan to modernize self-government in Canada.

Important Events in Canada's History.

1534—Jacques Cartier's explorations and the first attempt at French settlement.
1604—French found Port Royal in Acadia.
1608—Quebec founded.
1756-63—Seven Years' War.
1759—Fall of Quebec.
1763—Peace of Paris.
1774—Quebec Act wins the approval of clergy and seigniors in Quebec.
1776-83—American Revolutionary War.
1783—Coming of the United Empire Loyalists.
1791—The Constitutional Act grants representative government to Upper and Lower Canada.
1812-14—War with the United States.
1837—Rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada.
1841—Union of Upper and Lower Canada.
1849—Rebellion Losses Bill.
1864—Charlottetown and Quebec Conferences on Confederation.
1867—Dominion of Canada formed with four provinces.
1870—Manitoba enters Confederation.
1871—British Columbia joins the Dominion.
1873—Prince Edward Island becomes part of Canada.
1885—Canadian Pacific Railway completed.
1905—Provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan created.

Other Constitutions.

Each of the dominions has been free to devise its own constitution. Not surprisingly they vary. The development of each one into its present form has followed along lines very similar to Canada's history in this respect, avoiding the need for a lengthy description. So far as their fundamentals are concerned, the constitutions strongly resemble one another. Naturally, they conform to special conditions. South Africa, for example is, like Canada, bi-lingual. In addition, as a means of acquainting all members of parliament with the various peoples and areas of the Union, Pretoria was made the seat of government, Bloemfontein the seat of the judiciary and Capetown the meeting place of the government. Despite the fact that the Australian and South African constitutions were drawn up only a few years apart, a distinct difference is to be seen in the question of states' rights. In the former, individual differences of the states are maintained and protected, while in South Africa there is a marked tendency towards a unitary constitution. As is to be expected, too, various rates of political progress are to be discerned. Australia, for example, pioneered with the secret ballot, while New Zealand introduced the vote for women a quarter of a century before most other countries. Social and economic forces, too, have exerted important influences upon the development of the constitutions. The large native population of South Africa and the continued vigour of the reform movement in Australia and New Zealand are instances.

Today throughout the British Dominions millions of people are being governed in a manner similar to that with which you are

familiar. (For a full account of Canadian Democracy in Action, see Classroom Bulletin on Social Studies, No. 1.) They enjoy complete political democracy in that, theoretically at least, the humblest person in the country has equal power with the millionaire or the cabinet minister at the ballot box. The long struggle to overthrow the supremacy of the monarch and, subsequently, the landed aristocracy, is over. But the challenge to those who want a truer and better democracy still remains. For the essence of democracy is, probably, that it represents a quest which is never ended to achieve the complete self-development and realization of every individual. It is an ideal subject to widely varying interpretations as the concepts of the role of government today come in for increasing discussion.

Changing Role of Government.

How radically the role of government has changed in less than two centuries may be realized by the consideration of a single quotation: "To provide for us in our necessities," said Edmund Burke, "is not in the power of government. It would be a vain presumption in statesmen to think they can do it." Yet legislatures of our day provide maternity grants or children's allowances and meet virtually no opposition; unemployment and health insurance are accepted as functions of government. Indeed, the public has come to regard social security as a primary responsibility of the administration. The trend at the moment seems to be toward a further extension of this process. It would be well to consider the reasons.

Ideally, according to the economists of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries, the government could best serve the people by abstaining completely from interference in business matters. Its sole function was to protect the property owner from the envy and venom of the poor as well as from trammeling legislation. In this way industry could expand, free and unfettered, to its full possibilities, and guarantee to all, rich or poor, the ultimate in the goods of this life. But many years had not elapsed before the folly of this total "laissez-faire" attitude revealed its dark and sinister side. Legislation became imperative to protect workers from inhumanly long hours and from the hideous conditions of mines and factories. And as the nineteenth century wore on, government continued to invade increasingly what was once considered the private domain. Lloyd George jolted English opinion in the first decade of the twentieth century with his dramatic "war on poverty," in which he proposed among other things to supply hot lunches to undernourished pupils. For the government to feed youngsters was, to many, an almost unthinkable proposition. Yet almost all of the legislation suggested in Lloyd George's budgets was driven through the two Houses.

The next thirty years, however, were to see political and economic experiments in other countries which made England's bold experiments seem timid in comparison. With the rise of the totalitarian state the government in these countries became not only the focus of political life, but pervaded all social and economic activities as well. The democracies recoiled from the extreme

positions represented by fascism and communism, and the present finds them seeking to define the role of government in the future.

President Wilson was convinced that a grateful world, having seen the overthrow of autocratic Germany, would find its salvation in democracy. But much of the world repudiated democracy as one rickety state after another collapsed during the bitter post-war years. Strutting dictators took the place of popular legislatures; they mocked the ballot and referred to rule by the people as antiquated and obsolete. Unquestionably they made a strong appeal to the masses, so strong that their political power, translated into military might, almost won for them the domination of the earth.

Now that their threat has largely vanished, it would be wise to ask why democracy failed so lamentably in Germany, Italy and many other countries in which the experiment was launched so optimistically. Why were these people, hitherto denied the right to participate in their political affairs as equals, so ready to give up this precious right to power-hungry dictators? The basic reason can be put baldly. The masses of Germany and Italy preferred food to the vote. When the dictators promised them security in lieu of their political freedom, they were pleased to make the exchange. After all, the heroic struggle by which democratic peoples had won the franchise might be significant to a man like Wilson; to the average German or Italian, worrying about his next meal, it was of little consequence.

The attitude was not confined to the dictator countries. During the most harrowing days of the depression in the early thirties, many people on this continent questioned the value of the franchise. A small but significant number even advocated dictatorship as a possible release from soup kitchens and bread-lines. To them the right to select their governmental representative seemed a meaningless luxury. They were far more interested in a political or economic order which would guarantee them a livelihood.

There had been a time when the right to vote was the exclusive possession of only a few. The battle to win the vote for all was climated by political democracy. In the 1930's people began to talk about another type of democracy; they called it economic democracy. What they meant was to bring an adequate income within the reach of all. To be deprived of the vote had its corollary in being deprived of the means of existence. Just as the universal franchise had come to be regarded as a right for every individual, so it was felt by many must a livelihood and security be considered as the basic minimum for every citizen. The movement received sharp impetus upon the outbreak of war. Suddenly the remarkable capacities of the democratic nations were revealed; unemployment was succeeded by a shortage of manpower; quotas of production broke every known record; the people seemed to find themselves in their selfless devotion to the war effort. Citizens were convinced by the amazing results that poverty and insecurity could be removed if the problems were attacked with the same energy and resoluteness that had marked production for war.

Economic Democracy.

Today the world is witnessing the counterpart of the intellectual ferment and agitation which took place in England in 1640 and in Canada in 1837. Acting as catalytic agent, the war has thrust upon us the full challenge of economic democracy. The methods by which it is suggested that the problem may be met are many and various. Eric Johnston, perhaps the leading spokesman for Free Enterprise, maintains that the full capacity of industrial production will come when government stands aside completely from commerce, seeing only that competition throughout is fair. In his eyes industry may be likened to a great giant hitherto shackled by regulations and interference, and thus prevented from doing the magnificent job of which it is capable. Economic democracy will come, he affirms, when the giant is made free, for the sheer volume of goods will suffice to give everyone a decent standard of living.

Others insist that volume alone is not the solution. They point to the years of depression when people starved while food was wantonly destroyed. Lack of purchasing power, in their opinion, was responsible for this "poverty in the midst of plenty". Hence it is necessary to increase the volume, not of goods, but of money, and the Social Credit Party stands for governmental control of finance and credit. Credit should be held by the people, not by private institutions like banks, and should be issued to the full limit of the nation's resources.

A third view is that government must enter increasingly into the industrial life of the country, filling up the gaps of production with great public projects when private business fails to find gainful employment for all, or when the swing downward of the business cycle threatens economic paralysis. Others would go farther and place the principal means of production in the hands of the state, besides giving to government the over-all responsibility for national planning. Extending this principle even more, the converse of Eric Johnston's position is reached when the government takes over every aspect of life.

Increasing Power of the Executive.

Whatever step Canada should take in the future, it is obvious from the above description that the concept of the role of government is changing in the face of today's dynamic conditions. A shift of emphasis is taking place from problems of politics to problems of economics and administration. People are more concerned than ever before with such questions as how to administer health insurance or ensure full employment or provide low-cost housing. Consequently, the executive assumes increasing significance. It is a fact that in the last thirty-five years more and more power has been accumulated by the Cabinet in all English-speaking countries. The war, with its multiplication of agencies for controlling prices, rent and a score of other domestic matters, has brought home this fact with great force. The Cabinet is by no means autocratic; it can continue only so long as it enjoys the confidence of the majority. But within the limits imposed by the general policies of the majority, it exercises great powers. The Cabinet initiates legislation, outlines

the broad principles of national action, administers the vastly complex machinery of government. As more and more responsibility is relegated to the ministry, the task becomes heavier. One hundred years ago the Prime Minister of Great Britain seriously attempted to acquaint himself with the inner workings of all departments; today such an attempt would be manifestly absurd. Further evidence of this trend may be seen in the increased prestige and significance of the Civil Service, the permanent, politically-neutral body entrusted with translating the Cabinet's decisions into action. As recently as 1867, Bagehot in his scholarly analysis of the British constitution did not even think it necessary to discuss the influence of this institution. No description of the constitution, British or Canadian, could afford to overlook it today.

The daily experience of the average citizen testifies to the growth of executive control in this country. Some of it has been achieved at the expense of Parliament, while the Courts, too, have been deprived of certain powers. Boards and commissions of one kind and another have inherited or "usurped" these powers, depending upon one's interpretation of the new trend. Government departments, for example, discover that they cannot deal satisfactorily with all the matters for which they are held responsible. Hence special agencies are created by cabinet ministers to handle important administrative fields. The "alphabetical age" in the United States was responsible for a goodly number, like the N.R.A., the P.W.A. and F.H.A. (National Recovery Administration, Public Works Administration, and Federal Housing Administration). During the present war the tendency has been markedly increased, and every Canadian is familiar with the Wartime Prices and Trade Board and the National Selective Service Board, while the W.P.B. and the O.P.A. are household terms in the United States. So great is the volume of business in any of these spheres of activity that the duties are handed over to these boards, some of which are empowered to reach final decisions respecting even such fundamental matters as private and property rights. Often the boards have rights extending beyond the statutes; they are entitled to change laws to meet special conditions, and sometimes to enforce laws which Parliament has not enacted. Town-planning acts in Britain, for example, permitted an administrative board under the Minister of Health to take action affecting the disposition of private property if it was found that large-scale projects were impeded by the possessions of individuals. In other words, the authority given to the officials constituting these boards, many of them experts, has been vast.

The Wartime Prices and Trade Board draws up and enforces regulations which affect the standard of living of every Canadian. In many cases its members not only enforce, but interpret the regulations. The influence of this body is therefore enormous. Those who contend that its powers and those of similar boards are too great maintain these boards represent a "new despotism", overriding in their authority such guardians of individual rights as Parliament and the Courts. Defenders assert on the contrary that these agencies are finally responsible to Parliament and are there-

fore subordinate. In addition, the expert personnel on the boards assures a high quality of administration. Whether the number and influence of these agencies will increase or decrease in the future will depend upon the services which government will be expected to perform.

In war time, the peak of government interference in private life is reached. The acute emergency necessitates rapid decisions on matters which would ordinarily require lengthy discussion. It might be imperative, for example, for the government to seize control of the nation's railways. For a situation of this nature the order in council is a most convenient device. This is equivalent to a decree passed by the Cabinet. The assembly has no opportunity either to approve or reject the order, although of course the action carried out by the Cabinet must be one which enjoys the tacit approval of the majority. An executive which issued orders in council without reference to the feelings of the Commons would soon find itself faced by a rebellious assembly. At the moment much of Canada's governmental work is being carried on through this constitutional tool. According to the Canadian Institute of Public Opinion, no fewer than 44,000 orders in council have been issued in Canada since the outbreak of the war.

What of the Future?

It is obvious, then, that the executive is today the principal agent of government, far overshadowing other institutions, even including those with a background of great authority and dignity. Administrative boards, orders in council and the concentration of wartime functions give to this body a control it has never before enjoyed. Whether this vast power will be largely relinquished after the war or whether the executive will continue to exert far greater influence than it did a generation ago is a matter for the average citizen to consider. There is, for example, considerable resentment against various wartime controls. On the other hand, many people who dislike food rationing approve of price ceilings and price floors. It is often difficult to determine whether government intervention represents an irksome restraint upon individual rights and privileges or a welcome form of public welfare. The future of governmental regulations is still indefinite.

This is an era of rapid change, almost bewildering in its pace. Man can produce goods at a tempo hitherto undreamed of; he can communicate with people anywhere on the globe in minutes and even seconds; he can aim robot weapons at enemies hundreds of miles away. The possibilities of the future are either breath-taking in their promise or appalling in their menace. In the years ahead governments will be obliged to keep pace with the march of industrial and scientific progress to ensure that mankind is not once more the victim of crushing economic depression or the crowning tragedy of all—war. Whether governments will meet the demands of a changing age effectively will be decided by the men and women of voting age. The future, then, is the responsibility of thinking citizens; upon their alertness and keen perception depends the progressive legislation of tomorrow.

There was a time when most high school students could regard the duty of voting as something remote and abstract. Since they would not gain the franchise before their twenty-first birthday, they felt that thoughtful consideration of political and economic matters could safely be postponed for some years. That has been changed in Alberta; possibly other provinces will follow the trend of extending the vote to younger people. In any case, the matter of voting is no longer purely an academic subject for the young people of this province. Many high school students are now eligible to vote upon their graduation. It means that political issues, like the role of the executive, must be carefully studied if our young people are to show themselves worthy of the trust being placed in their thinking on the vital problems of the day.

IMMIGRATION (Unit XI)

After this war, will the vast open spaces of Canada be covered by waves of migrations from the uprooted populations of Europe and Asia? Will the population of this Dominion increase by leaps and bounds, and will Canada, from the standpoint of numbers at least, take its place as a great power? The question of population assumes increasing urgency as the prospects of peace become ever brighter. It is one which has concerned public men for a good number of years; their estimates on the probable and the optimum population for this country have been many and various. Here are some interesting examples of their speculations. Sir George Simpson in 1857 stated that in his opinion no part of the Hudson's Bay Company's territories was suitable for settlement. Only seventy years later Sir Donald Mann wrote in the Financial Times: "Before this century ends Canada should have a population of 150,000,000 to 200,000,000 if the white man's civilization, institutions, and culture are to survive." Mr. C. L. Burton, speaking before the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in 1931 predicted that a population increase of 25,000,000 in twenty years was "well within the range of possibility" and "still in every way desirable." A similar estimate was made by the Honourable J. G. Gardiner, who stated in 1937: "There is no reason why Canada should not have a population of 23,000,000 by 1950." In contrast with these impressive figures, there is the very conservative estimate of Professor W. B. Hurd, who suggests 15,400,000 in 1971 as a likely number, and considers 20,700,000 as the limiting population for the Dominion to be reached about the year 2300.

If one were to judge by Canada's history alone, it cannot be denied that three of the above forecasts seem definitely on the optimistic side, assuming (and this opinion is by no means unanimous) that a huge increase in population is desirable. In over three hundred years Canada's population has increased until it now exceeds eleven millions. That hardly justifies the assertion that a population increase of twenty-five millions in twenty-five years is "well within the range of possibility".

History of Canadian Immigration.

We would do well before considering the prospects of the future to review briefly the history of this country's immigration.

An interesting parallel between Canada's early days and the present is to be found in the motive behind Talon's immigration schemes of the 1660's. It was felt then, as many people feel now, that a larger population was urgently needed for both defence and prosperity. Talon, with the assistance of Colbert in France, induced many young men to emigrate to the new country by promising generous assistance in land and supplies. Besides, marriageable young ladies were brought to New France by the boat-load. These measures, as well as fines imposed upon the parents of unmarried young people, were responsible for the doubling of the population in six years.

Nova Scotia was to see a similar rapid expansion just one century later. Its population had decreased to 1,300 during the Seven Years' War; so Governor Lawrence issued an invitation to settlers offering them grants of free land. The large influx of English-speaking settlers from New England firmly established Nova Scotia as an English settlement. A few years later the immigration of thousands of Scottish Highlanders into the Maritime provinces and Upper Canada had an important influence upon subsequent Canadian history.

It was the American Revolution, however, which profoundly affected the character of Canada's population. The citizens of the Thirteen Colonies were by no means unanimous in their support of the Revolution. Many people still felt a deep loyalty to the Crown. Their lot became increasingly intolerable as the war dragged on. The venom directed against them compelled thousands to leave their old established homes and seek refuge. Many of them crossed the Atlantic to England, but a large number went north. It has been estimated that 30,000 or perhaps 35,000 came to Nova Scotia. Some three hundred found a home in Prince Edward Island. Additional thousands settled in the area above Montreal, in the vicinity around present-day Cornwall and around Niagara. As a result of this influx two new provinces were formed, New Brunswick and Upper Canada, while the United Empire Loyalists and their descendants left a definite imprint upon the culture and history of Canada.

If historical parallels mean anything, a great wave of migration may be expected following this war. Certainly, the end of the long wars in which Britain had been engaged intermittently from 1756 to 1815 saw what has been referred to by historians as the Great Migration. Masses of unfortunate people, victims of the Industrial Revolution, took advantage of the return of peace to find a haven in the New World. Most of these came from the British Isles, and it is estimated that between 1815 and 1850 not less than 800,000 people came to this country. This figure assumes greater significance when it is borne in mind that at the beginning of the nineteenth century the provinces had altogether a population not much over 400,000.

The final era of large scale immigration in our history took place from 1896 to 1914. It was a period of rising prosperity throughout the world. Canada seemed to share richly in the good fortune, and immigrants poured into the country in huge numbers. The federal government advertised the attractions of the new land far and wide, with the result that some three million immigrants responded to the inviting posters and booklets which were circulated in every consulate and steamship office. Of these, one million came from the United States, another million from the British Isles, and the remainder from Eastern and Southern Europe. It was immigration on an unprecedented scale; little wonder that Sir Wilfrid Laurier was moved to say at the peak of the movement that while the nineteenth century had belonged to the United States, the twentieth century belonged to Canada.

During the 1920's the figures for immigration reached impressive levels for a few years, though they were in no way comparable to

the totals for 1912 and 1913. Then, as depression set in upon the world, to be followed by war, what had once been a flood of immigrants now became a mere trickle. As for the future, estimates for the next twenty years are subject to the widest variations depending upon one's views of the desirability or possibility of great migrations from the battle ravaged countries.

Numbers of Immigrant Arrivals in Canada.

Calendar years 1871-1938 (based upon Canada Year Book, 1942).

Average 1871-1880	34,268	Average 1901-1910	164,415
Average 1881-1890	88,618	Average 1911-1920	171,225
Average 1891-1900	33,909	Average 1921-1930	123,020

Average 1931-1938 16,281

Immigration Policy.

Until well on in the nineteenth century there was no distinct Canadian immigration policy. Only after Confederation did it become obvious that the government must initiate a vigorous effort to attract settlers to the new land. Otherwise the great expanse of territory from sea to sea, much of it practically unpeopled, could hardly be maintained permanently, unless the Dominion indicated it both would and could colonize the country. The building of a transcontinental railway in 1885 was evidence of a serious attempt to fill the vast areas of the West. Even more concrete proof was to be found in the intensive programme of immigration carried out from 1896 to 1914.

Canadian immigration policy, except in regard to immigration from Asia, was embodied in the Immigration Act of 1910. This Act enumerated categories of inadmissible immigrants, made several safeguards for the reception of immigrants, and regulated transportation companies. Those regarded as inadmissible comprised physical, mental, and moral defectives, as well as persons likely to become public charges. Later, spies and conspirators were added to the list, as well as illiterates.

In 1919 two orders in council were issued barring skilled and unskilled labour, but a further order in council relaxed these regulations by granting entrance to the following:

1. Agriculturists with means to begin farming in Canada;
2. Farm labourers with reasonable assurance of employment;
3. Female domestic servants with reasonable assurance of employment;
4. The wife and children under eighteen of a resident of Canada able to support them;
5. United States citizens with means to maintain themselves until they find employment; the same provision for British subjects;
6. Persons who satisfy the Minister that their labour is required in Canada;
7. The father or mother, unmarried son or daughter not under eighteen, of a resident of Canada willing and able to support this relative.

The depression was responsible for more stringent regulations. Only British and American citizens with means were permitted, with the addition of a small number of farmers with sufficient resources to farm on their own account.

During the 1930's a new type of immigrant to Canada came to the fore—the refugee. Regulations governing immigration were not materially changed, however, and during the years 1933 to 1942 the average yearly total of settlers was only about 12,000. The provisions of 1930 were slightly altered to permit the entry of refugees who had money or who were contemplating bringing new industries to Canada. A number of refugees who had relatives in this country were admitted on humanitarian grounds.

Special regulations have been applied to Asiatics for many years. In 1885 Chinese immigration was restricted by the imposition of a head tax of fifty dollars, subsequently raised to one hundred and then five hundred dollars. The Chinese Immigration Act of 1923 excluded from entry into Canada all persons of Chinese race, except four classes—diplomats, merchants, students, and children (born in Canada of Chinese parents) who had left the country for educational or other purposes.

Japanese immigrants could not be restricted in the same way because of a treaty agreement between Canada and Japan entitling subjects of both countries "to reside in the territories of the other". Anti-oriental riots in 1907 led to the "Gentleman's Agreement" between the two countries limiting the number of Japanese immigrants of the working classes to 400 yearly. The number was reduced to 150 in 1923.

Aside from the years 1907 and 1908 the number of East Indians coming to this country has been negligible, the yearly average from 1900 to 1942 being 144.

The Absorptive Capacity of Canada.

How many people is Canada capable of absorbing? It is difficult to answer this question with any precision because authorities on the subject seem to reach diametrically opposite conclusions. One school of thought insists that Canada is very close to the saturation point in respect to population; to open wide the gates to millions would, according to this viewpoint, invite grave economic and political difficulties. At the same time, an important section of Canadian opinion openly advocates a vast increase in our numbers as the best guarantee of future prosperity. Let us consider the arguments on both sides.

W. J. Waines of the University of Manitoba was retained by the Royal Commission on Dominion-Provincial Relations to make a study of the outlook for population growth in the Prairie Provinces. He undertook an analysis of this area from the standpoints of soil, climate, and the possibilities of further economic expansion. His conclusions were almost all antagonistic to the theory that the Prairie Provinces are capable of supporting large additions to the present population. In Professor Waines's opinion, the Prairie Provinces would not find it easy to support their own natural increase, while land settlement schemes would probably serve only

to accelerate the process of emigration to the United States. His conclusions pre-supposed the continuation of the farming methods and world-trade conditions of 1938. In the event of a revolution in farm technique, the breeding of drought-resistant cereal or grass, or a profound change in the character of world markets, Professor Waines agreed that his decisions would have to be somewhat modified. In contrast with the millions of immigrants suggested by other thinkers, it is interesting to note that this authority estimates 400,000 as the hypothetical maximum which can be profitably placed upon the still unused lands of the West.

Another supporter of Waines, if we may judge by a pamphlet of 1936, is Eugene Forsey. (Unfortunately, few magazine articles or pamphlets have been written on the subject of Canadian immigration in recent years.) He derides first the idea that Canada has great open spaces for colonization. Actually, in his opinion, Canada for economic purposes must be considered as a rather narrow ribbon of territory along the United States border. It is not a question, he says, of cramming people into a country as if they were so many sardines in a can. Rather it is a question of finding markets for the articles which they can produce at a profit. In the world of 1936 with its restricted markets, tariffs, and quotas, this was far from an easy matter. Canada's economic development, he points out, has been based on a few export staples, like wheat. In the past our capacity to absorb new immigrants depended very largely on Europe's capacity and willingness to buy Canadian wheat at remunerative prices. The future then is none too bright if we consider the stationary birth level in Europe, and the fact that it will probably decline within a few decades. Nor can Forsey see the possibility of any spectacular further development of manufacturing. Hence in his view, it would be most unwise to attempt to increase Canada's production in the face of declining consumption elsewhere.

Arguments Against Immigration.

But the fear which lies uppermost in most people's minds on the subject of large-scale immigration is unemployment. The memory of 1936 when over 1,050,000 Canadians were on relief is still too sharply imprinted to permit casual predictions of millions more pushing their way into the country. The fact that fifty per cent of these had been on relief fairly steadily for the three previous years added to the gravity of the situation then, and provides a further deterrent today. Besides, the majority of unemployed are usually to be found among the unskilled and semi-skilled, the main element in any heavy influx of people. It is not surprising, then, that vigorous opposition to immigration comes from Canadian workers. Their principal objective at the moment is to attain full employment after the war. That this will be extremely difficult is unquestioned. But, so workers maintain, the situation will be rendered hopeless if the labour market is glutted by hordes of competitors from other lands, most of them accustomed to far lower standards of living than those enjoyed in Canada. Hence most trade unions advocate a policy of restriction during the unsettled post-

war years, with perhaps a gradual removal of barriers as the country displays its ability to absorb the entire labour supply.

The Farmer's Attitude.

One detects a similar attitude among farmers. Like other workers they have their painful recollections. It has been estimated, for example, that the average net income per farm family in 1931, including produce grown on the farm as well as cash, was $711. Agriculture's main fear consequently is over-production for a market in which prices of staples will fall to the disastrously low levels of the 1930's. How, it is asked, can more farmers be invited to Canada when the land proved itself incapable of sustaining a lesser number only so recently. Rather we must think of raising the levels of those already in the country, instead of endangering standards which are manifestly too low.

Besides, it is argued, immigration is a costly process which in the end proves futile. Canada his spent enormous sums to bring people here. Sir Clifford Sifton lavished money on gigantic publicity schemes which were responsible for attracting millions to this country. But what permanent effect did this policy have? A number of impartial researches indicate that from 1871 to 1901 more people left Canada than came into the Dominion. Over 1,000,000 native Canadians are said to have emigrated, most of them to the United States, during this period. The history of the next thirty years was little more encouraging. Total immigration was approximately 5,000,000, with the figures for emigration amounting to 3,500,000, of which 700,000 were native Canadians. The conclusion reached, then, is that in this period the country proved unable to absorb about a quarter of the natural increase of Canadian-born and about half of the immigrants. One researcher, commenting upon the decade 1921-31 when an impressive total of 1,500,000 immigrants was countered by 1,250,000 emigrants, said: "The immigration mountain laboured and brought forth its mouse."

Is Immigration Worthwhile?

There is a further point. The whole issue of mass migration from other countries and the advisability of providing sanctuary for uprooted peoples, both on economic and humanitarian grounds, as advocated by those in favour of immigration, may prove in the end an illusion. It is possible that the vast projects for the reconstruction of Europe and Asia will offer employment to most of those who might otherwise be emigrants. There will be little incentive to endure the hardships involved in pioneering in a strange country when the economic activity generated by rebuilding a ravaged continent may prove adequate to guarantee a comfortable standard of living. In any case, in addition to the large number of persons who are fiercely opposed to allowing mass migration to this country, there are many who maintain that such migrations probably will not occur.

Not all of the above arguments are of equal weight or conviction. For example, it may be reasonably pointed out that unemployment cannot be reduced simply by decreasing the population. The ratio of unemployment would probably not have varied in 1936 had

Canada contained 6,000,000 instead of 9,000,000 citizens. Hence those who insist that to permit additional thousands or hundreds of thousands to enter the country is simply to invite that much more unemployment are not being strictly logical. Nor can it be argued that job-holders of the present would necessarily be displaced by the newcomers. The ratio of employed to unemployed is based upon the state of domestic and foreign commerce, rather than solely upon the numbers of workers.

Arguments for Immigration.

Those who call for unlimited immigration lay their first emphasis upon humanitarianism. In March of 1942, for example, the Federal Council of Churches in Christ in America adopted this plank: "All men should be free to move over the surface of the earth under international agreement, in search of the fullest opportunity for personal development." Similarly, the Commonweal declared: "Our position is that the whole theory of exclusion is indefensible and that men and women should have the right to go anywhere in the world where they can find work." But it cannot be denied that this extreme standpoint is held by a very small number of idealists who can view with equanimity the prospect of great numbers moving as they choose over the earth regardless of standards of living. Most people who feel that Canada's present policy of virtual exclusion is adopting a "dog in the manger" attitude nevertheless rely upon economic arguments or reasons of national defence to support increased immigration.

Taxation, Railways, Unemployment.

The main point which has been advanced so far in Canada in favour of an "open door" is that this policy would alleviate three serious problems which have hitherto caused much distress; heavy taxation, railway deficits, and unemployment. The burden of taxation can be alleviated, so it is maintained, in two ways—either by reducing it, or by spreading it over a large number of persons. It is hardly probable that taxes will be lowered below the pre-war level. Indeed, it seems from present trends that public expenses will remain high. Then more people should be brought into the country to share these costs. Brigadier-General Hornby, the proponent of the "Hornby Plan" to bring selected British immigrants to Canada, maintained in 1936 that a nation of ten millions was carrying the tax burden of twenty millions. According to him the three Prairie Provinces with their three separate governmental structures were set up to serve a potential population of seven millions, but the present extensive public services were at the disposal of only half that number. The only way to justify the heavy costs of buildings and salaries was to bring the total population of the Dominion to 25,000,000.

In the same way, our railways were constructed to serve a population at least twice as large as the present one. To meet this situation, only one solution is possible—more traffic. True, there may be some alleviation by co-ordination and unification of the existing services, but to solve the problem adequately increased

passenger and freight traffics are essential. That is just another way of advocating additional population.

The problem of unemployment can be met head-on with the only known remedy—work. Hornby argues that the construction of homes on a nation-wide scale offers the most effective means of absorbing the labour supply since it has been estimated that 84% of the total sum spent on home building goes to labour. Were Canada to embark upon a programme of providing homes for a population which would eventually reach 25,000,000, unemployment could be effectively checked. In addition, Canada would experience an era of prosperity similar to that which she knew during the boom years of 1900-1914. To support this contention, he advances the assertion that each new family of five persons, according to one estimate, brings a net revenue of $177.62 annually to Canadian railways. Similarly, according to an estimate made by the Colonization Department of one of these railways, each new family of five persons means an annual net revenue of $1,562 for manufactured goods purchased. In this way, a thriving home market can be established, guaranteeing prosperity in this country regardless of foreign markets.

There is one obvious criticism of the above line of reasoning. True, it is a matter of simple arithmetic that expenses per capita will be diminished as the population increases, or the national income will be augmented by the addition of families, each with $1,562 to pay for manufactured goods. But this assumes that each family will be self-supporting or reasonably well-off. On the other hand, assume that these families are obliged to go on relief or are forced to accept public assistance because of the sub-marginal nature of their farms. Then taxes will certainly show no decrease and railways will derive little benefit, no matter how many families are settled.

Immigration and Expanding Production.

But perhaps the strongest argument of those who ask for additional millions of people was put forth cogently by C. W. Peterson in a booklet called "Canada's Population Problem." It will be noticed that fear is the dominant attitude in those who desire the restriction of population. They are troubled by the spectre of unemployment or malnutrition as a result of overpopulation. They look back upon the dark years of the depression and vow that Canada will be spared a repetition of that experience by carefully controlling the labour supply. These people think in terms of the past—of surpluses of consumer goods, glutted markets, and increasing unemployment. They would avoid a recurrence by carefully checking expansion. But Mr. Peterson learned a lesson from the first Great War which is gradually being taught most of us by the present conflict. "The recent European war and its aftermath," he wrote in 1936, "brought home to the world a multitude of strange economic facts, many of them as old as the hills, but up to that time wholly unrecognized. One of the outstanding lessons taught mankind was that there is absolutely no limit to the amount of work to be done in the world, or to the amount of business to be developed. The truth is that over-production is theoretically incon-

ceivable." He goes on to show that the purchasing ability of every country lies primarily in its own power of production. Hence, the more each country produces, the greater may be its trade with other countries. In other words, we must think of world production totals hitherto not even imagined. Were the nations of the world to make a concerted effort to secure freedom from want, many of the problems which have beset us for so long would gradually disappear. For, according to this writer, our great stumbling block has been under-development rather than over-population or over-production. It is a matter, then, of focusing intelligent effort upon the difficulty, rather than of placing a curb upon population or industry. Suppose, for example, our resources were to be developed to their fullest possible extent, the wealth they would produce would provide for many millions, and the needs of these millions would in turn ensure vigorous domestic and foreign industries. It is a question, in Mr. Peterson's opinion, of exploiting and developing the country on an unprecedented scale. Under present methods, for example, we are sharply limited in our efforts by certain physical facts; climate and soil are two of these. Suppose, however, that we bent all our efforts to improving the soil or to exploring ever new possibilities in chemurgy. Many of these limiting factors could be pushed aside. The principal spokesman for this view at present is Vice-President Henry A. Wallace. He points to the astonishing development of Siberia in the past few years as an example. What was once a vast open plain is now dotted with large industrial cities, while the Russians look forward to huge increases in population to handle the steady economic growth. So long as we think in terms of scarcity or restriction, our policy must necessarily be one of exclusion. But those who feel that this war has clearly indicated the almost inexhaustible possibilities of production for raising standards of living everywhere urge larger populations for such rich areas as the United States and Canada.

Under the stimulus of war-time production, the perennial railway problem has been solved—at least for the time being. Similarly, despite tax burdens which dwarf those of the pre-war era, tax revenues are remarkably high, while there is no strong complaint from the people. It seems to indicate that intense production is the solution. But one question remains unanswered. That we can produce on an unprecedented scale for a war emergency has long been known. Whether the same condition can be achieved during peace time is quite another matter. The optimistic theories of Peterson and Wallace depend upon one vital point—has the world learned the production lesson taught by this war?

Immigration and Defence.

Another issue intimately linked with the question of population is gaining more prominence. It is defence. The time when Canada could remain unperturbed behind the unassailable barriers of Atlantic and Pacific Oceans and Arctic ice is long past. Geographic isolation has ceased to exist. There seems little possibility that nations of the future will disarm and so place themselves at the mercy of aggressors. Rather the trend will be towards prepared-

ness against any and every eventuality. The cost of modern armament is prodigious; couple this fact with the great length of Canada's borders, and it will be realized how important is a large population for the Dominion's safety. Australia almost succumbed to the overwhelming power of Japan in the spring of 1942. Today, that commonwealth is seeking additional inhabitants to compensate for its undefended position and weak military status. There is little doubt Canada will be obliged to consider the same situation.

Another possible advantage to be derived from an increased population is that Canadian manufacturers would gain some of the economies of mass production, enabling them to compete more adequately with United States rivals. There is also the possibility of new industries and new skills coming to this country.

Canadian Opinion.

Now that the arguments pro and con have been advanced, it will be interesting to note the general Canadian reaction to the question of immigration. The following query was put by the Canadian Institute of Public Opinion in January, 1943: "After the war, do you think Canada should open its doors and permit people from all parts of the world to settle here, or do you think we should keep them out?" The results:

	English	French
Open door	6%	16%
Closed door	46%	13%
Selected Immigration	36%	66%
Undecided	12%	6%

Of the general population, 63% favoured selected immigration, 22% advocated the closed door policy, and 15% urged unrestricted immigration.

Should Canada embark upon a policy of restricted immigration, there will be many questions to be considered. In the past, preference has been extended to inhabitants of the British Isles. Then, the peoples of Northern Europe have come next in favour, followed by those from Central and South-eastern Europe. Lastly, a small number from the Orient have been admitted. This order of preference is based largely upon two factors; standard of living and the readiness with which the newcomers are assimilated. These factors will probably continue to dominate our actions, virtually excluding Orientals.

Perhaps in a steadily shrinking world it may prove dangerous to seal off a country against emigration from other countries. The strangulation of trade by the erection of very high tariff barriers and the development of national tensions and resentment as a result was one of the principal causes of the present conflict. It may prove equally unwise to raise barriers against the free interchange of peoples, especially when some countries appear so obviously to be over populated and others to be under populated. Some authorities are suggesting international agreements in this matter similar to those concerning trade in the Atlantic Charter. Another proposal is that large numbers of migrant workers be free to travel from country to country, meeting labour shortages as

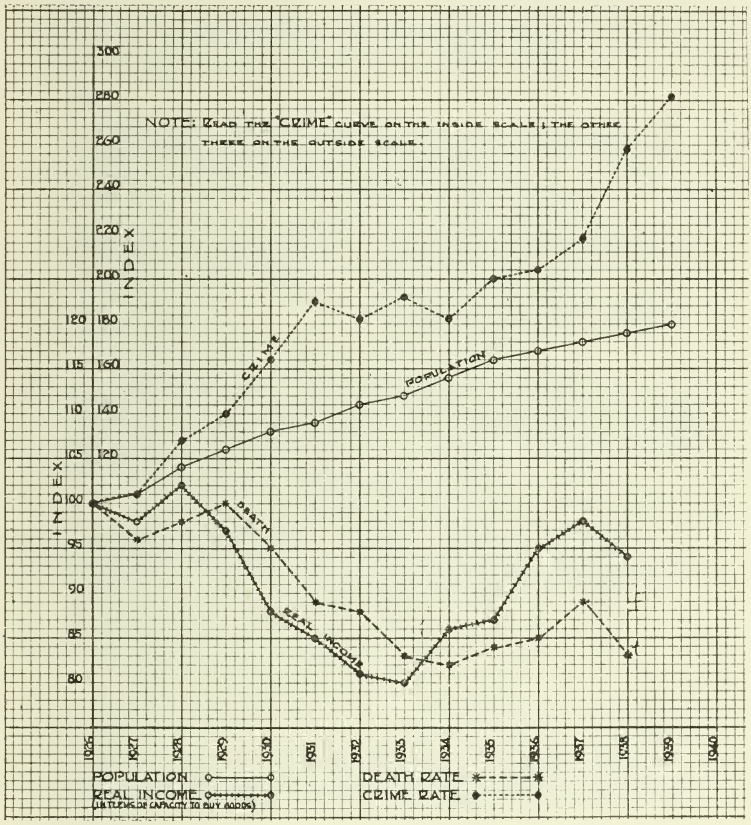
they arise, while retaining the citizenship of their native country. At the moment, for example, many Mexicans are employed in American war industries on the understanding that they will return to Mexico once hostilities have ceased. In the opinion of Bruno Lasker such a policy could be widely extended, especially in this day of global transport. He maintains it would accomplish the task expected of immigration without entailing the difficulties involved in the permanent transfer of population.

Lastly, there is a consideration which has hitherto received scant notice in any discussion of the immigration laws. It is the fact that there may be other aspects of the problem in addition to the purely economic. Canadians have always been accustomed to viewing immigration from a single standpoint: What material advantages can be gained from allowing settlers to enter? Consequently, our concern has been mostly with ourselves, while the newcomers have been regarded as the fortunate recipients of our hospitality. Perhaps we would do well to consider that those who come to our shores may bring with them great intellectual and artistic gifts or fine traits of character which will enrich the nation. They may give as much to Canada as they gain from her. An appreciation of this possibility would do much in the future to assist the newcomers in the difficult task of adjusting themselves to an entirely new environment.

Immigration is one of the most complex issues before us at the present. As may be seen from the arguments advanced on both sides, much more than economic prosperity is involved. It is a question necessitating long range vision and cool, temperate judgment. Canadians should be prepared to give the matter the most careful consideration when the time for decision comes.

GRAPH EXERCISE

The twentieth century is an era of statistics. Every person today should be capable of reading and interpreting various types of graphs, charts, and tables. The exercise below is designed to give practice in graph reading.



The graph above show trends in income, death rates, population, and crime in Canada from 1926 to 1939. All data have been reduced to a proportion of the data for the year 1926, which is taken as the "index" year. For instance, the population in 1939 is to that of 1926 is as 120 is to 100. That is, it rose 20%. Only trends, not absolute quantities, are important.

A.—Classify the following statements as True or False.

	T.	F.
1. In 1933 the average income in Canada was only 80% of what it was in 1929		
2. The incidence of crime appears to increase in the same proportion as increase in population		
3. There appears to be a direct relation between real income and the death rate		
4. By 1935 there were more than three times as many crimes committed as there were in 1927		
5. Increase in crime appears to have no relation to the fluctuations in real income or the steady increase in population		
6. The greatest annual decline in income occurred from 1931 to 1932		

B.—Place the letter of the best completion in the blank provided.

1. The death rate and real income curves are similar in their main outlines. The most probable reason for this may be:
   (a) Rich people usually die of excesses.
   (b) The intense industrial activity when real income is highest is responsible for a higher industrial accident rate.
   (c) More travel by railway during periods of higher income is responsible for increased fatalities.

   _____

2. Despite fluctuations in death and birth rates, the rate of increase in population has been relatively constant. This may be explained by one of the following:
   (a) The number of immigrants coming to Canada has steadily risen.
   (b) The number of divorces has steadily decreased.
   (c) The average size of the family is increasing.
   (d) The rate of natural increase in a population of eleven millions is only slightly affected by fluctuations in death rates and immigration.

   _____

3. There was a rapid rise in the rate of crime in Canada between 1926 and 1939. The most probable reason for this was:
   (a) Steady decline in income.
   (b) Increase in population.
   (c) Increasing laxity of law enforcement.
   (d) Declining stability of the family.

   _____

4. The years of lowest real income were 1932 and 1933. This condition is best explained by:
   (a) These were years of greatest deflation, i.e., lowest prices and wages.
   (b) Increased population resulted in the distribution of the national income among more people.
   (c) Cheap German and Japanese goods supplied in payment of war debts crippled international trade.
   (d) These years marked a period of sharp inflation.

   _____

5. During the years 1926 to 1930 there was an average of 140,000 immigrants arriving yearly in Canada, while from 1931 to 1939 the yearly average was only 15,000. Yet the population curve shows no appreciable change. The most probable reason for this is:
   (a) Changes in the death rate offset the change in the population.
   (b) The high rate of emigration to the United States from 1926 to 1930 offset the high rate of immigration.
   (c) A rapidly declining birth rate was responsible.

C.—How the curves of population, crime, death rate, and real incomes will behave in the future is anybody's guess. What probable effect would the following events have on the various curves? Give reasons for your answers.

1. The population curve of Canada.
   (a) The present conflict continues for another five years during which the number of casualties is relatively small.
   (b) Family allowances go into force in 1945.
   (c) Greater international understanding is reached on such basic questions as trade, immigration, disarmament, and rehabilitation.

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2. The crime rate curve.
   (a) A depression sets in following the war.
   (b) All youth are enrolled in various young people's organizations devoted to social service.
   (c) Economic developments provide employment for all young people over sixteen.

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3. The curve of death rates.
   (a) Areoplanes for civilian use are introduced on a wide scale.
   (b) There is a period of intense industrial activity after the war.
   (c) Medical science discovers a cure for infantile paralysis.

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4. The curve of real income.
   (a) There is a period of inflation without a corresponding increase in industrial activity.
   (b) Canada enjoys a level of full employment similar to that of 1928.
   (c) The tariff barriers between the United States and Canada are removed.

CONSUMER EDUCATION (Unit XII)

Buymanship.

Buying wisely is far more difficult than the average student might suspect. That is why full-year courses have been built around this subject in United States schools and colleges, and why the matter is being dealt with in the present Social Studies course. It is most important for people to use their incomes to the utmost advantage. Oliver Goldsmith long ago immortalized the silly spender in "Moses Goes to the Fair". But the humour one derives from reading how one inexperienced person was duped by "super-salesmen" largely vanishes when we think of millions making their daily purchases under the sinister conditions of "let the buyer beware". If education is to prepare students for life, it must concern itself with one of the basic actions of our whole economy—the spending of money.

Consider the average householder. He or she has little or no exact knowledge about food values, the durability or worth of textiles or the ingredients of patent medicines. Yet purchases must be made daily from a bewildering variety of goods. It is important then that people know as much as possible about the products they buy to ensure their maximum physical welfare; it is doubly important when one considers the many factors which militate against the consumer's making a correct choice. This article will deal briefly with the essential features of consumer education. Nevertheless, the subject is worthy of a far more extended treatment since the beneficial effect of a student body well versed in the principles of "good buymanship" would soon be felt in this province. Were Alberta students to graduate with a clear conception of what is involved in being an intelligent consumer, there is little doubt that standards in quality, merchandising, and business ethics would show an appreciable rise.

Budgeting.

How does one proceed to buy intelligently? The first step, it is generally agreed, is budgeting. Without the stern restraint imposed by a budget, the average person is apt to spend undue amounts of money on relatively trivial wants. Important items such as food, rent and clothing often suffer, when the income is disposed of without any distinct advance plan. The people who are able to keep out of debt and to save money from average salaries are, as a rule, those who carefully allot specific sums to each major type of expenditure.

At this point, a few rather widespread misconceptions about budgets should be mentioned. Firstly, financial planning and miracle-making are not one and the same. Many have the fond notion that a budget serves to make their money go farther, that in some way it increases the buying power of their dollars. No amount of bookkeeping, unfortunately, will stretch a $1,000 a year income to $2,000. The function of budgeting is rather to distribute the expenditures properly so that the earner may obtain the

greatest possible satisfaction in proportion to his spending. For very low incomes it may not be even a matter of satisfaction. The only guide then offered would be in the sacrifice of certain urgently needed commodities for others still more urgently required.

It is incorrect to assume that itemizing expenses punctiliously each month constitutes budgeting. It would be possible to harass oneself with such accounting month after month without succeeding in balancing income and expenditure. The important thing is to make the income cover the essentials, and to make provision, if money remains, for the niceties of living.

Nor can standardized budgets be offered for various types of families. Each family has its own distinct attitude toward the value of food, shelter, a car or a vacation. The budget will reflect these variations. Hence it is an individual matter, conforming not only to the finances available, but to the general philosophy of life held by the family members. Various research organizations are, however, attempting to set up desirable standard plans as guides for intelligent spending.

There are few individuals who have not, at one time or another, determined to budget their income and expenses. The failure which meets so many of these sincere efforts usually arises from the following error in procedure. Let us assume that a person is earning $125 monthly, most of which is spent. He decides to regulate his expenditures stringently so as to save twenty-five dollars each month. Indeed, it is often this excess of zeal which dooms most budgets to failure. He pares down the amounts to be spent on each of his regular items, and notes to his satisfaction that the saving can easily be made. But during the first month unforeseen expenses crop up and, to his dismay, the fine structure built on paper is wrecked. Then and there he decides that budgets require a somewhat different temperament from his own and he abandons the attempt.

Technique of Budgeting.

The benefits to be derived from an efficiently planned budget are sufficient to warrant some mention of the proper procedure. A beginner should not attempt to fix expenditure from the start; instead he should prepare a temporary budget for a month or two. After that period the results should be carefully studied and the amounts allotted for each item should strike a neat balance between the bare minimum and comfortable spending. Assume, for example, that a family's grocery bill during this trial period is, by dint of Spartan forbearance and restraint, a few cents over thirty-seven dollars. It would be unwise to fix the anticipated monthly grocery expense at thirty-seven dollars. A far wiser procedure would be to estimate on thirty-nine or forty dollars. Similarly, if the salary is $125, one would do well to budget on, say, $122.

Within a short time the logic behind this method will become apparent. On the second month, for example, the food bill may be one dollar less than allowed for under the plan. This surplus should be added to the grocery quota for next month. In this way the inevitable fluctuations from month to month are handled easily,

without altering the equilibrium of the various items. Even temperament cannot upset such a budget if it is consistently followed.

The restraint upon spending imposed by a budget prevents the casual spending of money upon trivialities. People who budget their incomes carefully gain more lasting satisfaction from their purchases than those who are content to let whims be their guide. The student will therefore do well to study carefully the actual technique of tabulating income and expense, and the preparation of budgets.

Having determined how much money can be spent upon each item, the consumer is ready to commence his purchases for the month. But now there is a significant difference from budgeting. It has already been said that budgets are incapable of increasing the family income. Intelligent buying, on the other hand, can secure more for the same amount of money. Let us begin with a trivial instance. Mrs. A. is accustomed to buying soup one can at a time although it retails at ten cents per tin, two for nineteen cents. Obviously, with a little care, she could save a small amount of money. The usual reaction of most people when shown an item such as this is to chuckle over the minute economy and continue with former buying habits. But it has been estimated that wise buying can save the average household as much as five per cent in a year. A saving of $100 on a budget of $2,000 is certainly worthy of consideration.

Instalment Buying.

With the knowledge that definite economies are possible, it is now fitting to discuss the actual problems connected with "buymanship". A question which almost never arose thirty years ago and is of immediate concern today is that of instalment buying. Pianos, sewing machines and encyclopedias were sold on instalment plans during the past century. But aside from these articles practicallly all purchases were made with cash. Indeed, up until the first World War, consumer credit was frowned upon, and the man who mortgaged his future earnings to gain present satisfaction felt the censure of society.

The coming of the automobile effected a minor revolution in selling. Not only did the instalment plan lose its taint; it was carefully developed by automobile manufacturers, and subsequently by other businessmen, until the number of automobiles, radios, vacuum cleaners, refrigerators, etc., sold on this continent by this method in the year immediately prior to the war reached many millions. It was estimated in that year that one-tenth of all retail purchases were made on the monthly payment scheme.

Is it wise to buy on the instalment plan? Doubtless, there are advantages. Many people earning relatively low salaries would be obliged to postpone the purchase of goods for months, or even years were it not for the easy payment methods offered. It means they can derive immediate satisfaction for some want, and then pay as the article is being used. Unquestionably, too, the huge volume of sales made possible by bringing articles like automobiles and re-

frigerators within the buying abilities of millions, enabled manufacturers to secure the economies of large scale production.

There is, however, another side to be considered. If all purchases made on this plan were for articles which satisfied a deep-felt need or want, and were within the capacity to pay of the buyer, without charging him unduly for the privilege of deferred payments, no strong charge could be laid against the instalment method. Unfortunately, this has not been the case. The apparent ease with which cars and radios can be bought has led many people to indiscriminate purchases, only to lose them ultimately to finance companies. It is a far different matter to find the money for the first one or two payments than to make regular expenditures over a long period, particularly when unforeseen events like illness may radically alter one's plans. Over-zealous salesmen are often able to use the scheme as attractive bait for customers who are not completely convinced of the wisdom of a purchase. In addition, the average consumer is frequently charged an excessive rate of interest when borrowing from finance companies or when dealing with concerns which do a major part of their business in this way. Of course, one can readily see why instalment buying is more expensive than cash purchases. A great deal of clerical work is entailed, besides the costs involved whenever legal action is found necessary. But a person may pay off a $20.00 purchase in ten weekly instalments of the seemingly innocent amount of $2.20 without realizing he is paying approximately 100 per cent in interest on an annual interest basis. In other words, the consumer must carefully consider all aspects of the plan. Free of abuses, it offers the individual on a small income a convenient means of enjoying at the moment many goods which might otherwise have to be deferred for a long period. In the hands of high-pressure salesmen, however, it may degenerate into a method for depriving men and women of their hard earned savings. Consumer education and legislation are necessary to ensure the effectiveness and safety of the instalment plan as a buying device.

Choosing Wisely.

Just as the deferred payment is a comparatively recent introduction, so is the problem of making wise purchases among a staggering number of choices. It is estimated that up to one hundred years ago the variety of goods and services bought by the majority of families did not exceed 300 items. Today the number is close to 90,000. In the city of Milwaukee, for example, a recent survey indicated that no fewer than 142 different brands of coffee and 278 brands of dentifrice were on sale. The average consumer is faced with the virtually impossible task of selecting his purchase from this huge number, with the problem further complicated by the almost unlimited variations in sizes, weights and prices in which the goods come. As if that were not enough, the manufacturers of these products bombard the consumer with advertising, some of it genuine, some spurious, through the mediums of the press, radio and the billboard. Little wonder that the consumer has often been termed the forgotten man of our industrial system.

Before the days of large-scale production, the purchase or sale of an article was a relative simple matter. A person desiring a new pair of shoes, for example, took some leather to the shoemaker, a man whose craftsmanship was well known in the community. After some time the article was made and the transaction completed. Today the situation is entirely changed. Modern goods are practically always produced in advance of the consumer demand for them. They are made in huge quantities and must be sold within a short time if the entrepreneur is not to face bankruptcy. Hence it is imperative that the seller create a demand for the goods which he has to offer. Advertising is the medium by which this is done.

Why is it necessary to create a demand for products? In the days when people bought shoes or furniture from the local craftsman no such stimulation was required. Men and women simply purchased the goods which satisfied their wants. But now the process is infinitely more complicated, since thousands of additional articles are competing for the consumer's dollar. There is no need, for example, for sellers to build up a demand for food. Still, many of them will undertake to develop a demand for a certain kind of food. In the youthful days of your grandparents, packaged, ready-to-eat breakfast foods were virtually unknown. Today they represent a huge industry. Having once created the demand for a new type of food, manufacturers compete sharply to ensure the sale of their particular type of breakfast cereal. Indeed the creation of a demand among consumers has evolved into a definite technique. So effective is modern advertising in presenting the claims of hundreds of competing articles that many customers are persuaded to purchase articles which they may not need or cannot afford. It was this function of advertising which was responsible for the sudden, sharp interest in consumer education. A book entitled "Your Money's Worth", published in 1927, laid bare the unworthy aspects of modern advertising. It showed how the consumer was often being exploited or urged to buy beyond his income. Since then, an aroused minority of the public has demanded higher standards in business ethics.

Advertising.

Ideally, advertisements should aid and guide the consumer. They should provide the information which will help him to make an intelligent choice. It is encouraging to note that there is steady progress in this direction. Through the efforts of government agencies and business organizations and the increasing awareness of consumers, much of the fraudulence which has marked advertising is disappearing. Advertising is not only an integral part of the present economic set-up; it is capable of much good if properly directed and controlled. The useful services which it may perform are the following:

1. Advertising introduces a new product to the public.
2. Advertising provides information about a product.
3. Advertising aids consumers in finding a place where they can buy certain products.
4. Advertising makes possible mass production and mass merchandising.

Large scale production methods are one of the greatest achievements of modern industry. They have enabled us to secure goods in quantities undreamed of under previous systems. This huge output, produced with ever greater efficiency, has brought the prices of individual articles within the buying power of average individuals. Advertising has played a most significant role in bringing about this desirable condition. Some goods are produced today for world-wide consumption. Had it not been for advertising, only a limited number of people would have learned of the product, eliminating the possibility of economies through large scale merchandising.

The consumer must always keep before him the fact that advertising is neither all good nor all bad. While admitting that it is responsible for the four benefits mentioned above, there are serious drawbacks as well which are apparent to everyone. Extended discussion of these defects is not necessary here as the following points will suggest the main weaknesses:

1. Advertising may be used for harmful as well as worth-while products.
2. There is too much advertising.
3. Advertising frequently appeals to our "lower motives".
4. Many advertisements are non-informative.
5. Much advertising is useless, wasteful or extravagant.

Intelligent consumers, by disregarding the dishonest or the absurd appeal of some of the more unworthy forms of advertising, will exert a most beneficial effect upon the industry. One type, for example, which is by now largely discredited, is the testimonial. To have some famous or notorious person recommend a particular product certainly does not guarantee the suitability of the article for the needs of other individuals. The fact that most testimonials are openly paid for, further invalidates them as a guide to the bewildered consumer.

Understanding Labels.

It is most important, too, for the consumer to have a clear understanding of the mercantile terms one meets so often in advertising and in merchandise displays. A label on a sweater bearing the words "Part Wool", can mean almost anything. Only when the average person has the knowledge with which to appraise such a garment carefully will people get their money's worth. Similarly, the terms applied to furs can be most confusing to the uninitiated. There was a time when a "sealskin coat" meant exactly what the words indicate. Today with seals being decidedly limited in number and confined to relatively inaccessible areas, but with the demand for their furs steadily increasing, a large number of substitutes are on the market. "Hudson Seal" for example, is not seal, but applies to a muskrat skin which has been made to resemble sealskin by plucking certain of the hairs and dyeing the remainder.

There are literally dozens of terms which could be cited from every branch of merchandising which have relatively no significance for the buyer because of his ignorance. Within recent years several excellent books have been written, designed primarily for

schools in the United States which stress consumer education. These books describe in detail the meaning of words, which though commonplace in the business world, are puzzling to the average customer. It is regrettable that few individuals know what is implied in the terms worsted, suede, serge, mohair or broadcloth. For each of these materials has specific value for the consumer if bought for the proper purpose.

The fact is that most people involuntarily cheat themselves when entering a store through not knowing what to look for. Take the matter of clothing. One's first reaction is to judge a fabric by its weight; yet weight, which was once a helpful index of textile quality is, since the days of chemical weighting of cloth, no longer a reliable standard. Happily, the problem is becoming less complex as a result of the determined and persistent agitation of consumer groups throughout the country. Definite standards have been set up for rayon products and their descriptive labels, enabling the buyer to make his purchases with some confidence. Unquestionably, the same will be true of other fabrics in the future if buyers insist on such regulations.

Fabrics and Clothing.

When buying fabrics, the following steps should precede any purchase. Compare the threads of various samples, separating them into individual fibres to determine their fineness and length. Notice whether the thread is soft twisted or hard twisted. The former may be more attractive, but the latter is more durable. Then hold the fabric to the light to determine the evenness of the weave, an indication of its endurance. It is well, too, to rub the material between the fingers as starch or other chemical sizing will sift onto the counter and give the buyer some idea as to whether the cloth has been weighted excessively by artificial means. Remember that a good woollen material should not wrinkle when grasped tightly in the hand. Remember, too, the purpose to which the material is to be put; hard-twisted, firmly woven cloth for hard wear, and fancy weaves where appearance is the main consideration. Lastly, avoid materials described by ambiguous terms as "fiber silk" and "wool finished".

The consumer may determine whether a textile is composed of cotton, wool, silk, or rayon by a number of simple tests. A thread from the fabric may be removed. If it burns readily, flashing up and giving off an odour of burnt paper, it is cotton. Wool threads burn slowly with an odour of burning feathers. Rayon can be detected by the fact that the yarns pull apart easily with ends that appear to be bundles of fine wires while, silk breaks with smooth, straight ends. Whether these tests are practicable in the average store is a more difficult matter than the obvious simplicity of the methods.

All the points to be considered in the selection of a wardrobe would take many pages. The following general suggestions will be found useful:

1. Before going shopping, analyze your needs. Decide upon such matters as the money which you feel can be afforded, the

purpose of the garment, and the accessories you already possess which are to match the garment.

2. Weigh carefully the suggestions of salespeople. Attempt to locate salespeople in whom you have confidence.

3. Maintain a critical, alert attitude toward advertising.

4. Look for definite information on labels as to fibres used, colour fastness, weighting and shrinkage.

5. Consider the cost of upkeep of the garment and avoid fabrics which will soil or wrinkle readily.

6. Consider comfort first.

7. If it is necessary to buy on the instalment plan, calculate how much you are paying for credit charges.

Buying Food.

The analysis of food values is, surprisingly enough, as complex as judging the worth of clothing. With hundreds of brands on the market and scores of different grades and weights adding to the confusion, the average householder is faced with a real task when attempting to realize the utmost from the food dollar. The economical purchase of meat, for example, requires careful consideration and observation. Experts suggest the following as serviceable guides in the selection of good meat:

1. A good grade of meat should be firm, but soft and plump looking. Inferior grades are glossy, hard and flat looking.

2. The finest meat has a network of fat throughout the lean and a liberal covering on the outside of the carcass.

3. Good meat is free fror odours and spotty discolouration.

4. One can detect the age of the animal by the colour of the bone. In young animals the bone marrow is red; in older ones it is yellow or white.

5. Government stamped meat offers definite insurance of quality.

6. Be familiar with cuts and their uses. Remember, too, that a cheap cut well cooked is more appetizing than an expensive cut poorly cooked.

7. Buy meat containing as little bone and other waste as possible.

Almost equally elaborate guides could profitably be offered for a host of other food products. It is sufficient to say that intelligent buying is more than paying out money after a cursory glance at the various displays. Listed below are suggestions which will help every consumer develop habits of good buymanship so far as food is concerned:

1. Buy in the most economical form. Do not be misled by extravagant packaging or ornate containers. Bear in mind that canned fruits and vegetables come in more than a hundred different-sized containers. Besides, there is no way of knowing at a glance how much a bottle or a can contains, for many are so constructed that they appear to contain more than they really do. It is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when canned and packaged goods will come in standard sized containers as do milk and

cream. For the present, be familiar with the sizes of cans and their contents.

2. Buy in season. Fruits, vegetables, fish and other foods are seasonal. Make your purchases when the supply is at its peak and prices are lowest.

3. Watch for special sales, but always be sure that a "bargain" is a bargain.

4. Scorn not the penny. A saving of fifteen cents a day on purchases otherwise amounting to $1.50 is a ten per cent saving. Many shrewd businessmen would be content with less. Such a saving repeated every day of the year would represent a sizeable amount.

5. Buy in quantities best suited to the family. Remember that quantity buying, unless it involves waste, can be most economical.

6. Deal with a trustworthy merchant, and show him you appreciate his service and courtesy.

7. When buying packaged goods, read the label carefully. Note the designation of size, weight, and grade; also any descriptive terms used.

"Shopping" for Moving Pictures.

Statistics indicate that the greater part of the consumer's dollar goes for food and clothing. This is not unusual; what is surprising is the fact that for every dollar spent in this country on food, twelve cents is spent on the moving picture and theatrical entertainment generally. Rarely in the past has discrimination been shown in the purchasing of this amusement. It has become almost a tradition to attend the theatre once weekly, regardless of the fare offered. Often, patrons disregard the plot entirely and go merely to see some favourite "star". The results of this careless consumption are only too obvious. While Hollywood has unquestionably the finest technical facilities in the world, much of its output, catering to patrons who do not demand high standards, is trivial and cheap. An alert public which "shopped" for movies would effect a healthful change. Movie goers will begin to receive their money's worth as soon as their demands for higher standards are felt at the box-office. Were the 80,000,000 people who patronize the theatre weekly to read critical reviews of films carefully, and see photoplays only when their quality justified the attendance, it would no longer be necessary to decry the crudity of so many Hollywood presentations.

Cosmetics.

Cosmetics and beauty aids come next on the list of consumer purchases, the total expenditures for these products amounting to one-third of what is spent on moving pictures. A similar amount is paid out annually on medicines, whether prescription or patent. There is little doubt that the average buyer has been, until recently, the victim of much fraudulent advertising in the field of patent medicine, and much misrepresentation in the sale of cosmetics. Although some of the worst abuses have been corrected, the consumer should treat the extravagant statements concerning these

products with caution and discretion. It is a sober, scientific fact, advertising agents notwithstanding, that the following discoveries are still beyond man's reach:

1. A face cream that will build or nourish the skin or that will remove wrinkles.

2. An external reducing preparation that will remove fat.

3. A toilet soap that has medicinal properties.

4. A preparation that will grow hair or that will permanently remove hair.

5. A dentifrice that will destroy harmful bacteria, cure diseased mouth conditions, sweeten the breath, or remove stains.

6. Any cosmetics or toilet preparations that will take the place of proper diet and exercise, adequate sleep, and other good health habits.

The above list renders absurd a great part of the advertising we meet daily through our magazines, radios and newspapers. This does not mean that cosmetics are all harmful or useless. It merely suggests that they may serve as aids to better grooming, but they do not achieve the fanciful results with which copywriters would like one to credit them.

Another point to consider in the purchase of cosmetics is price. Numerous instances have been recorded of the same products being packaged by different concerns, with one firm charging twelve times as much as another for the identical article! Fancy containers are a partial explanation for the price spread, while a genteel form of snobbery is also responsible. In any case, price is a notoriously inaccurate index of quality in this field.

Patent Medicines.

A special word should be said about patent medicines since it has been estimated that more money is spent each year on worthless drugs than on physicians' services. This unfortunate situation has resulted from fear campaigns which have driven people to seek relief from complaints both real and imagined. It is indeed odd that the average individual should seek medical advice from the patent medicine wrapper, rather than from his family physician, particularly when so many of the remedies on the market have been proved definitely harmful. For a matter as vital as one's health, an intelligent, cautious attitude towards the buying of goods and services is particularly important.

From time to time articles appear in national magazines exposing some of the vicious frauds connected with patent medicines or food adulteration. The reader is infuriated that preparations endangering the health and even the lives of unsuspecting customers can be offered for sale without apparent supervision or regulation. Actually, with the passing of the years, legislation and careful supervision are giving increasing protection to the consumer.

Government Supervision.

The National Health Branch of the Dominion Government is doing important work in this direction. From the report of the Food and Drugs Division for the year ending 1942 some idea of the

vigilance of government authorities may be gained. For example, the number of radio scripts dealing with both food and drugs examined and passed upon during the fiscal year was 1,951. In addition, two significant Orders in Council, establishing new regulations under the Food and Drugs Act, were passed. One of these defined the standards for Vitamin B flour and bread; the other fixed the maximum cereal content in all meat by-products.

Throughout the year inspectors in all parts of Canada are busy analyzing food and drug products for evidence of fraud or carelessness in their manufacture, advertising, or display. The following excerpts from the annual report referred to above indicate the nature of this work:

"Cocoa Beans—One large shipment of 1,000 bags was found to be unfit for use and was refused entry. It was later discovered that this same shipment had been condemned in the United States. In spite of an acute shortage of cocoa butter, appeals for release of these beans for the purpose of extracting the fat were positively refused. This fact is mentioned to emphasize the point that the function of this Division is to protect the public from filthy food."

"Oils, edible—Last year considerable adulteration of olive oil was discovered and traced to importing houses in Montreal and Toronto. By the time the discovery was made, much of this oil had filtered into smaller arteries of retail commerce and was difficult to trace. The large number of 2,081 samples examined during the year is evidence of the effort which has been made to eliminate this adulterated material from the market. All stocks of such material, which as a rule was mixed with cottonseed oil, teaseed oil or peanut oil, was seized and returned to be relabelled. In several cases the goods were disposed of either by destruction or to charitable institutions. It is now believed that practically all this material is off the market. This form of adulteration is not inimical to health, but is an economic fraud."

"During the year proceedings have been instituted in 133 cases. In 104 of these the issue was adulteration of meats, including sausages. The remaining 28 covered the other branches of food and drugs, and 11 of these concerned soft drinks. This total number of 133 represents less than one-half of one per cent of the samples examined in the laboratories. The Act provides that, in the case of first offences, the Minister may accept a voluntary payment out of Court and, during the past year, 101 such voluntary payments were made and thirty-two convictions were registered. No cases were dismissed by the Courts."

Private Agencies.

Throughout this article, the pitfalls which lie before the average buyer have been emphasized. The odds against him may seem at times most formidable. Yet the last few years have seen a notable trend toward improvement. Better Business Bureaus and other such organizations are doing much to enforce more honest dealing as an ultimate protection for business itself. Many advertisers are coming to see the folly of inaccurate or false claims, and the general tone of advertising in this country is unquestionably rising. A

factor in this healthy tendency is the increasing awareness of the consumer, brought about by nation-wide consumers' organizations as well as by extensive literature on the subject. The role of government supervision is also most significant. In addition, numerous private agencies have come to the aid of the customer. Foremost among these are the American Medical Association and the American Dental Association.

The American Medical Association maintains three committees to investigate and test certain types of products. One of these, the Council on Foods, grants the privilege of displaying its seal of acceptance to those firms whose products satisfy the council's standards for purity and wholesomeness. The seal is also a guarantee of the truthfulness of the advertising claims for the article. It should be understood that this seal indicates acceptance, judged on certain standards; it does not imply recommendation. For the puzzled, confused buyer, the authorization by the Association acts as a most welcome guide.

The two other committees of this Association do equally important work of a similar type in the field of proprietary medicinal articles or patent medicines and appliances used for physical therapy. Their reports are serving to expose many dangerous frauds, as well as to encourage the sale of reliable products.

A dentifrice bearing the seal of the American Dental Association has been accepted by that organization as being safe for cleaning teeth. In a survey undertaken about five years ago it was learned that only eighteen of the hundreds of dentifrices for sale bear the seal in question. But people using any of those eighteen brands could be assured they would be found satisfactory for their purpose. Unfortunately, the findings of this association and of the American Medical Association reach a relatively small part of the population. It is to be hoped that ultimately many other agencies will assist these two associations in giving definite assistance to the consumer.

Other seals of approval are to be found on reading the advertisements of the popular magazines. Some of these are sponsored by the magazines themselves or by private concerns. Commercial considerations, however, tend to influence the decisions on acceptance or rejection, with the result that few of these seals enjoy the complete confidence of authorities.

Consumers' Organizations.

One of the most promising methods for aiding the purchaser made its appearance about fifteen years ago. This is the independent testing laboratory in which qualified scientists investigate all types of commodities and present the results of their tests in bulletins, handbooks and buying guides. Subscribers may obtain this service for approximately three dollars annually. The researchers assess each commodity from the standpoints of cost, efficiency, endurance, etc., and on the basis of their conclusions suggest which brand represents the "Best Buy", or a "Good Buy" or those which are "Not Recommended". How helpful this service is may be gauged by this one instance. A consumer saved twenty

dollars when he learned through a report from one of these organizations that a vacuum cleaner for forty-nine dollars was a better cleaner than the one he had planned to buy at sixty-nine dollars. He could be assured, as well, that this advice was sound for the independent testing laboratories are supported entirely by consumers and receive no money whatever from manufacturers, distributors or advertising agents.

The leading organizations in this field are Consumers' Union and Consumers' Research, both of the United States. Since their establishment they have done noteworthy work in promoting good buymanship. Some difficulties faced by these organizations should, however, be mentioned. For one thing, the job of keeping up with the thousands of different types of products and brands flooding our markets is virtually an impossible one. To make the matter even more difficult, qualities under the same brand name are known to change from year to year. Again, the number of customers who will find the time and effort to refer to the various publications and guides before making a purchase is decidedly small. Even with these limitations, it cannot be denied that the lot of the intelligent buyer can be made much easier by the use of this service.

What does the future hold for the consumer? The answer is that whether or not he will get his money's worth will depend largely upon himself. Much progress has already been made. Whether this will be continued and augmented in the coming years will be determined by the extension or decline of better buying and selling practices.

Buyers should demand and receive reliable information from sellers on the simple grounds that complete honesty will in the long run prove mutually beneficial. Besides, intelligent buying should manifest itself in closer attention to labels, to the impartial conclusions of authorized laboratories, and to the claims of advertising. The years ahead should see a standardization of all consumers goods into readily understood grades. Similarly, some uniformity in the hundreds of different sized containers should be obtained. It should be realized, too, that special services and free gifts or offers are always paid for indirectly by the consumer, just as are poor buying habits like insisting upon frequent refunds, leaving bills become long overdue, or wasting the time of salespeople.

The seller, too, has his obligations. He should sell reliable goods made and sold under satisfactory working conditions. His prices, labels and advertising should be scrupulously honest. Never should the consumer be regarded as one whose gullibility can be exploited. Authors will no longer find it necessary to write searing exposés like "100,000,000 Guinea Pigs" or "Partners in Plunder" when seller and consumer finally co-operate for their joint advantage.

RADIO LOG

Stimulating programmes dealing with Social Studies can be located by the discriminating radio listener. The following is a list of National and Trans-Canada network broadcasts of high quality:

Sunday:	12:04 p.m. MDT	—Washington Commentary.
	4:30 p.m. "	—The Canadian Pattern.
	6:45 p.m. "	—Our Special Speaker.
Monday:	8:30 p.m. "	—National Farm Radio Forum.
Tuesday:	8:15 p.m. "	—Books of the Times.
	9:00 p.m. "	—Forum Discussion.
Wednesday:	8:15 p.m. "	—The World and Ourselves.
	8:30 p.m. "	—Political Broadcasts.
Thursday:	2:18 p.m. "	—Speaking as a Canadian.
Friday:	8:15 p.m. "	—Prairie Comment.
	4:15 p.m. "	—John Fisher Reports.
Saturday:	7:00 p.m. "	—United Nations International Series.

All programmes mentioned above can be heard over Station CBK, Watrous (540 Kcs.) and over radio stations in your district.

The National School Broadcasts series, "Conserving Canada," is also recommended. It is heard each Friday until December 15 from 10:30-11:00 a.m. MDT.

REFERENCES

For the Convenience of Teachers and Students

Excellent pamphlets on a wide range of topics are being published regularly. They serve as valuable source material for class discussions, and present interesting approaches to the problems of the day. But there is one drawback. Usually they are printed in limited quantities, and many who order them find they are no longer available. The nine pamphlets listed below, however, have been purchased in quantity. Besides, for the sake of convenience, they have been assembled together in packets, the whole nine to be sold as a unit for $1.00. They are published jointly by the Canadian Institute of International Affairs and the Canadian Association for Adult Education. Each is written in concise, readable fashion by a recognized authority. Titles are as follows:

$1.00 {
- Homes or Hovels.
- Canada's Future in Test Tubes.
- Canada's Air Future.
- A Greater Canada Among the Nations.
- The B.N.A. Act and Nationhood.
- Whither the Near East.
- Commonwealth "Pattern for Peace".
- Moscow Conference.
- The Nations Have Declared.

The package of nine may be obtained by ordering from:

The School-Book Branch,
Department of Education,
Provincial Building,
Edmonton, Alberta.

"The Headline Books", a splendid series published by the Foreign Policy Association, New York, can also be secured by writing to the School Book Branch. Copies sell at thirty cents each. The following titles are available:

War Atlas.
The Good Neighbours.
Look at Latin America.
Shadow Over Asia.
New Homes for Old.
Changing Governments in France, Germany, Italy, Russia, and Denmark.

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